

# The Historical Outlook

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## Racial Elements in American History Textbooks

BY THYRA CARTER, DEPARTMENT OF SOCIAL STUDIES, UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL,  
IOWA CITY, IOWA

A few years ago world-wide attention was focused upon the mayoralty campaign of the city of Chicago when William Hale Thompson as candidate for mayor injected the charge that "Briticized" history textbooks were making un-American citizens of the children in the schools. Never before had history teaching and textbooks received such publicity, although they had frequently been the butt of ridicule and attack. Never before, as far as is known, had a candidate for the mayoralty of a large American city been inducted into office because he had so effectively revived an age-old animosity toward an ancient national foe. Thompson boldly stated that "Anglicized school histories....bristle with the fulsome laudation of British institutions and British achievements," and that "false and pernicious teachings run through the Anglicized textbooks from beginning to end."<sup>1</sup>

It was the psychology of this campaign to arouse the emotions of various nationalities by statements tending to show that American history as taught gave undue attention to English heroes and events, while ignoring those of other peoples who had gone to make up the warp and woof of American life. To right the alleged wrong Mr. Thompson pledged, that if elected, he would see to it that recognition was given "to the heroes of Irish, Polish, German, Holland, Italian and other extractions who had been dropped from the histories," and that he further would promise that pupils "were brought back to the American viewpoint and American ideals that formerly prevailed." As mayor, he gave his pledge to rid Chicago schools of their "pro-British" teachings by dismissing "unpatriotic" teachers and censoring all history textbooks, advocating that in their place should be "real American histories," which should include stories of the achievements of the many heroes of many nationalities, now denied their "proper places in the school histories."<sup>2</sup>

But the stage had been set for such criticism and such pledges before Mayor Thompson undertook his task. Since the World War various racial and other partisan groups have held "that American histories as now written....are distorted by a pro-British bias." In their criticisms of American textbooks the Catholics, the Irish-Americans and the German-Americans have been most active. Edward F. McSweeney, one-time head of the Knights of Columbus Historical Commission, charged that "a definite campaign of British

propaganda had been carefully inaugurated, and that the first effort of the pro-British propagandists 'to undermine the foundations of our national life' was 'by tampering with the children in the public schools.'"<sup>3</sup> The place of the Irish race in the making of America, Michael J. O'Brien, chief historiographer for the American Irish Historical Society, sought to establish in a *Hidden Phase of American History*. This book proposes to set forth Ireland's part in America's struggle for Liberty, to tell the story of Irish contributions to the Revolutionary army, and to establish a place of pre-eminence for the Irish in the building of the Republic.

The Germans, too, desired recognition. Some of their irritation sprang from the same source from which came the dissatisfaction of the Knights of Columbus. The Germans believed that greater publicity should be given to German contributions in the making of the United States. Among these contributions the Germans would have it a matter of more general knowledge that the first iron works in this country were established by a German; that the first American-printed Bible was printed by a German; that General Herkimer was of German extraction; and that of the ideals of liberty and of education the Germans were conspicuous creators. Albert Bernhardt Faust, in *The German Element in the United States*, emphasizes the part played by the Germans indirectly making the plea for greater attention to be directed toward recognizing contributions of the Germans.

It is, therefore, of interest to discover to what extent nationalities other than the English have been treated in the histories commonly used in our schools today. Is there any justification in the criticism that the Germans, Irish and Scotch-Irish, Italians, and Poles have not been given attention commensurate with their contribution to the American nation? In attempting to answer the question as to how much space is devoted in high school American history textbooks to the Germans, Irish and Scotch-Irish, Italians, and Poles in comparison with that given the British, as well as what kind of treatment they receive in these books, ten senior high school textbooks were examined. These were chosen from lists compiled through the co-operation of publishers, lists approved by city and state school administrators, and included Charles A. Beard and



Mary R. Beard's *History of the United States*; Henry Eldridge Bourne and Elbert Jay Benton's *American History*; S. E. Forman's *Advanced American History*, revised edition; William Backus Guitteau's *History of the United States*; Albert Bushnell Hart's *New American History*; David Saville Muzzey's *History of the American People*; James Alton James and Albert Hart Sanford's *American History*; and Willis Mason West's *The American People*.

These textbooks were read with a view to determine the content and the space given to the various nationality groups. To assess the latter, words were counted to determine the approximate space given to each. In considering the former, the printed page was read to see whether it would tend to create favorable or unfavorable attitudes toward these peoples in the minds of high school pupils. Some difficulty was encountered in computing the number of words devoted to purely English or purely American, especially during the colonial period. Therefore, it was found necessary to designate arbitrarily these events as English or as American.

In order to compare the treatment of the various nationalities in the different textbooks examined, the British have been placed first because they receive most attention. Then come the Germans, the Irish and Scotch-Irish, third; the Italians, fourth; and lastly, the Poles, because to them is allotted the least space.

#### THE ENGLISH

Starting with the nation which concerns the student of United States history, in laying the foundation for American nationality, we find that Great Britain receives more attention than any other nation.

James I, mentioned in all the textbooks except those by Bourne and Benton and Fish, is usually referred to in a most impersonal way. In one book, however, he is spoken of as a tyrant and haughty ruler; as one who assumed the rôle of despot, and whose "arrogance was more than Englishmen could bear."<sup>4</sup> Practically all the writers condemn Charles I, and he is referred to as being an arbitrary and despotic king, determined to rule without parliament. Also, all the textbook writers are severely critical of James II. Guitteau considers him the "last and worst of Stuart kings."

How France lost her territory in North America to the English is explained in all the textbooks examined, but they differ greatly in amount of space devoted to the wars. West passes over the entire period by saying, "From 1689 to 1763 with only short pauses to take breath, France and England wrestled for the splendid prize of the Mississippi valley." At the other extreme is Guitteau's account of thirteen pages, in which he says that "the conflict was inevitable, and that the victory of the Anglo-Saxons over the French was a victory for the race best fitted to conquer the wilderness."<sup>5</sup>

Most of the histories refer to William Pitt as a great statesman with unusual ability and wisdom, but

once he is referred to as being arrogant and conceited.<sup>6</sup>

The textbooks agree that George III was a poor king, and to a considerable degree responsible for the trouble with the colonies. George Grenville, also, comes in for much criticism, and is referred to as "an able man, but lacking in breadth of view, tact, and statesman-like qualities."

That the Americans had friends in Parliament is pointed out by all the writers, but the importance given to these men greatly varies. Hart states that "opposed to the king's policy was a group of brilliant statesmen, of whom the most famous were William Pitt, later Earl of Chatham, Charles James Fox, and Edmund Burke. Not only did men in Parliament oppose the war, but throughout the country Beard and Beard declare that a strong minority made vigorous protests against the obnoxious acts which "precipitated the unhappy quarrel." Hart and Bourne and Benton also emphasize the part played by the English people in opposition to their government.

Several textbooks declare that the hiring of German mercenaries was instrumental in bringing about the Declaration of Independence. This was the crowning insult to America, says West; while another writer considers it more "provoking than the burning of cities."<sup>7</sup>

All ten textbook writers state that England continued to impress American seamen and interfere in American commerce after the Jay treaty. Most of them go on to say that France treated the United States almost as harshly as did Great Britain, but being less powerful on the seas her depredations were less serious. The fur trade and the Indian troubles in the Northwest in 1811, which were thought to be instigated by the British, caused many difficulties. One group of historians give the impression that the war was inevitable, while Bourne and Benton and Muzzey, on the other hand, state that the declaration of war in 1812 was unfortunate, because the British government was getting ready to give up its blockades rather than have another war on its hands.

A more impartial attitude toward Great Britain is displayed in the period of Expansion and Conflict, although most of the textbooks emphasize the fact that the United States and Great Britain were almost constantly involved in difficulties during this period, over the Caroline Affair, the Maine and Oregon boundaries, the annexation of Texas, the problem of slavery and slave trade, and the Clayton-Bulwer treaty.

Although the people of the United States resented the action of Great Britain in recognizing a state of belligerency of the Confederate states in the Civil War, most of the textbooks agree that the English government acted within its rights. The writers go on to show that public opinion in England was divided until the Emancipation Proclamation was issued; then the attitude of Great Britain toward the United States changed to that of friendliness.



Two events which nearly led to war with England, according to the writers, were the Trent Affair and the Alabama trouble, which Muzzey states was the most serious of our difficulties with England.

Our relations with Great Britain since the Civil War have assumed a more friendly aspect according to the textbooks used in this study. They show that when differences have arisen, arbitration has been the method of settlement. The settlement of the Alabama Claims is considered "the greatest victory up to that time for the principle of arbitration." The controversy over the seal fisheries in Bering Sea, although the decision was unfavorable to the United States, state several authors, it was the next great victory for arbitration. However, in the Venezuelan question, authors occasionally use words and phrases which do not put England in a favorable light. For instance, one author speaks of "the brusque attitude of Great Britain" which "aroused our government to an aggressive and spirited course of action," and according to Muzzey, Lord Salisbury, an Englishman, regarded the Monroe Doctrine as an "antiquated piece of American bravado."

The attitude of England toward the United States during the Spanish-American War is described in a few histories as favorable. Then nearly all the historians accord Great Britain as our ally in the World War nothing but praise. However, some writers point out that England interfered with our commerce, but they make it clear that "the differences with Great Britain were technical, and never involved charges of inhumanity."

#### GERMANS

The devastation of the German countries which made thousands of Germans homeless is given by the historians as the reason for the immigration of large numbers of Germans to America in the eighteenth century. Having to push beyond the first settlement in Pennsylvania, they went on to the frontier where they became thrifty farmers who contributed to the wealth of the province.

Several historians mention Jacob Leisler as a German settler in colonial New York. He is referred to as an important citizen; a hot-headed German merchant; while another writer declares that Leisler was a usurper of government, and was finally hanged as a traitor.<sup>8</sup>

The hiring of German mercenaries during the Revolutionary War is discussed in all ten textbooks, but the stigma of the act falls on the English rather than on the Germans, and the writers tend to create sympathy for the Hessians who were sold by their princes.

Six textbooks mention Baron von Steuben as being an "accomplished" Prussian officer with a distinguished service record in the Seven Years' War, who trained American troops in the Revolutionary War.

According to the historians, large numbers of Germans came to the United States in the 1840's and 1850's, so that in 1860, nearly a million and a half had found homes in the United States. During the Civil War they are reputed to have rendered distin-

guished service to their adopted country. Missouri might have seceded except for the many German immigrants in St. Louis, according to several writers.

More space is given the Germans since the Civil War than during any other period of American history. The three principal sources of difficulty with Germany before the World War consisted of the Samoan controversy, the trouble with Germany in the Spanish-American War, and the Venezuelan affair, when Germany refused arbitration. In each case, Germany is shown as the aggressor and in the wrong, while the United States is always within its own rights.

The treatment as well as the amount of space given to the Germans during the World War varies greatly in the textbooks. Guitteau is most derogatory in his treatment of Germany. He states that the leaders of Germany had for many years planned an aggressive war, and that as soon as Europe was conquered, "then America—peace-loving, idealistic, defenseless America—might be taken in hand and taught her proper and subordinate place in a world ruled by German power." For nearly fifty years this writer says Germany had been making ready for war, while England and Russia, and even France were quite unprepared.<sup>9</sup> On the other hand, most of the writers do not place the responsibility for the war. Germany's ruthless submarine policy and "destruction of American lives" are described as chief causes for the United States entering the war. The horrors of the war and the alleged atrocities of the German army are emphasized by Hart and West, who declare that a "large part of the civilian population of Serbia was practically massacred" by the German army. The German government is likewise charged with carrying on numberless intrigues in the United States. It is alleged that our country was filled with spies who wrote articles for the newspapers, magazines, and other periodicals. Indeed, it is said that German agents tried to break up American trade with the allies, and that munition factories were destroyed by them. All this turned the American people against the Germans, according to the textbook writers, and so the United States was driven into the war by the actions of Germany.

#### THE SCOTCH-IRISH

Practically all ten writers declare that both religious and economic reasons sent the Scotch-Irish to America in the colonial period, and, like the Germans, coming late upon the scene, they were forced to go beyond the seaboard to find good land. They are referred to as an important element in the colonies and the "best of pioneers." Once, however, they are spoken of as the "belligerent Scotch-Irish," who quarrelled with the seaboard region over the division of political power.<sup>10</sup>

When the Revolutionary War broke out, the Scotch-Irish, who had suffered at the hands of Great Britain, took sides with the patriots, and, according to one textbook, Joseph Galloway, speaker of the house

of assembly in Pennsylvania, declared that one-half of the American army was Irish. O'Brien, in *Hidden Phases of American History*, writes that thirty-eight per cent. of the army was Irish, but that "thirty-eight per cent. of enthusiastic sons of Ireland, enlisted in a fight against their hereditary enemy, assuredly would be enough to make any observer believe that easily 'one-half' of the army were of the same class!"

John Barry is mentioned in three books—Forman, Fish, and Guitteau, but only in a footnote in Guitteau is he referred to as being Irish.

The discussion of the Irish in the American histories during the period encompassed by the years 1829 to 1865 was based on their immigration to the United States and their tendency to settle in the eastern cities. This occasioned "considerable alarm," according to one writer, while another points out that riots against the Irish immigration "were common occurrences."<sup>11</sup>

In the histories examined very little is said of the Irish since the Civil War. Several mention a large immigration to the United States which settled chiefly in cities and worked in mills, mines, and factories.

#### ITALIANS

Due to the fact that many of the early discoverers and explorers of America were Italians, their names appear in nearly all the textbooks, but not always are they referred to as being Italian. Only four authors state that Columbus was an Italian.

The next time the Italians are mentioned is in the period since the Civil War. Considerable attention is directed toward the change in the type of immigrant from that of Northern Europe to that of the Southern countries. They are referred to as generally poor, unskilled, and illiterate, who came to the United States for the better wages in order to return to their homes in a few years. One writer gives a more favorable idea of the Italians in describing them as the most "dependable source of labor," and as furnishing many skilled laborers in artistic industries, such as the molding of plaster.<sup>12</sup>

Before the World War, the treatment of the Italians in the American histories tends to create a feeling of animosity toward them, while in the World War references to Italy, however, are very brief, and of the type to be quickly passed over by the pupil.

#### POLES

As one might expect, no mention of the Poles in relation to the colonies is made during the entire colonial period.

Going on to the Revolutionary War period, we find included among the foreigners who aided the Americans in the war, two Poles, Pulaski and Kosciuszko, who are mentioned in five textbooks. Here they are spoken of as nobles and soldiers of fortune, who proved of great service in organizing and drilling the raw American troops.

During the last quarter of the nineteenth century many Poles came to the United States, according to

several historians. West states that these people were from the oppressed subject lands of Russia, and are described as being far removed from the traditions of England whence came the founders of America.

#### CONCLUSIONS

In examining these histories, it has not been the purpose of the investigation to pass judgment as to the propriety of each allotment, although the criticisms that non-English groups receive too little attention in proportion to their contributions to American life was an impelling motive in initiating the study.

However, in considering the amount of space devoted to the English, one finds that the following proportion has been given by these authors: Guitteau, 7.839 per cent.; Fite, 6.664 per cent.; Forman, 6.609 per cent.; Muzzey, 6.47 per cent.; Beard and Beard, 4.466 per cent.; James and Sanford, 4.771 per cent.; Bourne and Benton, 4.429 per cent.; West, 3.953 per cent.; Fish, 3.311 per cent.; and Hart, 2.939 per cent. Guitteau devotes more space to the Germans than any other author, or 2.925 per cent., while James and Sanford give only .274 per cent. Two other writers, Fite and Fish, allot less than one per cent. to the Germans, while the other six histories give between one and two per cent.; to the Irish and Scotch-Irish, Italians and Poles, less than one per cent. of space in any history is given, the most being given to the Irish and Scotch-Irish is .408 per cent. in Fish's book, while the least is .083 per cent. in Guitteau's. Muzzey devotes .547 per cent. to the Italians, and the smallest amount is found in Fish, or .037 per cent. The Poles receive the least space, in no book as much as one-tenth of a per cent., the greatest being .099 per cent. in Muzzey's book, while the smallest being .005 per cent. in Bourne and Benton's book.

The purpose of the survey of textbooks as stated previously was to show the treatment accorded racial elements, as well as the amount of space given to them. After careful reading of these books, the investigator is of the opinion that the discussions of the American Revolution, the War of 1812, and England's attitude during the Civil War are not such as to bring about a favorable attitude toward Great Britain. It is doubtful whether the friendship shown by England during the Spanish-American War, and the alliance in arms of the United States and Great Britain during the World War, are emphasized enough to change the ideas gained by reading the first part of the histories.

The immigration of the Germans to the United States, beginning in colonial times and continuing to the Civil War, is mentioned in all the textbooks, but little more than the fact that they came and their reasons for coming are given. Since the Civil War, histories in varying degree place Germany in an unfavorable light, Guitteau's history being most severe in the criticism of the Germans, while Fish in his book shows least animus. But it should be noted that

less than one per cent. of the word space in Fish's history is devoted to the Germans, while almost three per cent. is given to them in Guitteau's book. Little is said of the Irish and Scotch-Irish, except that they formed a large proportion of the immigrants to the United States, and that they were the frontiersmen and the builders of the "true west." They are accorded praise in practically all the books. The Italians receive little space during the period since the Civil War, but the references to Italy are mostly indirect, and tend to make little impression on the pupils. The Poles are mentioned in regard to their aid to the Americans during the Revolutionary War, and again when they immigrated to the United States in the last quarter of the nineteenth century. A few authors give the impression that the Poles were undesirable immigrants.

Based upon the results of such a study, the non-English groups certainly do not appear to have received the attention commensurate with their real and permanent achievements in the upbuilding of the American nation. By this statement I do not wish to be understood to mean that a writer in his chronicle should detract from the achievements of the English racial stock, but I merely wish to express the belief

that textbook writers of the future, narrating the complete and true story of the development of the United States, will take into more consideration all racial elements going to make up the warp and woof of the American people and nation.

<sup>1</sup>Thompson, William Hale, "Shall We Shatter the Nation's Idols in School Histories?" *Current History*, Vol. XXVII (February, 1928), p. 622.

<sup>2</sup>*Ibid.*, pp. 619, 623.

<sup>3</sup>Pierce, Bessie Louise, *Public Opinion and the Teaching of History* (New York, 1926), p. 226.

<sup>4</sup>Forman, S. E., *Advanced American History* (New York, 1924), p. 24.

<sup>5</sup>Guitteau, William Backus, *History of the United States* (New York, 1924), p. 103.

<sup>6</sup>Fite, Emerson David, *History of the United States* (New York, 1926), p. 84.

<sup>7</sup>Bourne, Henry Elbridge, and Benton, Elbert Jay, *American History* (Boston, 1925), p. 118.

<sup>8</sup>Fite, *op. cit.*, p. 73.

<sup>9</sup>Guitteau, *op. cit.*, p. 602.

<sup>10</sup>Muzze, David Saville, *History of the American People* (Boston, 1927), p. 67.

<sup>11</sup>Fite, *op. cit.*, p. 294.

<sup>12</sup>Hart, Albert Bushnell, *An American History* (New York, 1921), p. 553.

NOTE.—This article has been taken from "Racial Elements in American History Textbooks," State University of Iowa Thesis, July, 1929, by Thyra Carter.

## Workbooks in the Social Studies

BY EDGAR BRUCE WESLEY, HEAD OF SOCIAL STUDIES, UNIVERSITY HIGH SCHOOL, AND ASSISTANT PROFESSOR, COLLEGE OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF MINNESOTA

The present wave of workbooks has not reached its crest. It is thus fitting and perhaps necessary for teachers, authors, and educational leaders to study them with the object of ascertaining their value in general, and the relative merits of various types and features. Until experimental data are available, the answers to such problems will be based upon whims, opinions, and superficial judgments. Pending the appearance of authoritative studies each person may air his views, relate his experiences, and pose as knowing what cannot yet be disproved. Under the circumstances the writer essays the task of stating a few problems and airing a few unproved notions.

Without attempting to analyze but merely to describe workbooks in the social studies, the writer would divide them into two classes, the general and the specific. A workbook of the general type is organized on a topical or chronological basis, and usually contains citations to various texts. So far this type seems to have been rather restricted in numbers. A workbook of the specific type is based upon a published text and parallels it in organization. Unfortunately several workbooks which are of the specific type are advertised as belonging to the general type, and in some instances this mild deception appears also in the preface. The specific workbook usually contains topics, problems, projects, exercises, maps, drills, and tests which are based upon material found in the textbook. Some of the specific work-

books contain study-guide sections covering the reading matter in the text.

Any attempt to evaluate workbooks must take into account the total unit of which the workbook is often only a part. Some units consist of a text, a workbook, a teacher's guide or manual, and a key to the workbook. The total material for student and teacher is divided among the four parts of the unit. The material of another unit may be divided among its various parts in a very different manner. In order to compare two workbooks, both of which are parts of a unit, the entire unit must be considered, for an admirable feature of one unit may be placed in the teacher's manual, and in the other it may occur in the workbook. It is also obvious that a workbook in a unit cannot be fairly compared with a general workbook, for the latter stands alone. In spite of these perplexing irregularities there are enough features common to most workbooks to justify a tentative consideration of their merits.

The general problem of the utility of workbooks takes precedence over the question of the relative merits of various features. The authors of workbooks seem to have in mind the desirability of making the material of the social studies more concrete, of paralleling so far as possible the scientific method of approach. The term "laboratory manual" appears on at least one title-page. From a pedagogical standpoint such an object may appear desirable, but in



principle it runs counter to Aristotle's unrefuted dictum that mathematical exactness must not be expected in the moral realm, and the moral and social realm have many elements of similarity. Thus the laboratory idea, if it parallels that of the natural sciences, is based upon the fallacy that there is a definite body of information which will produce the desired results in the social studies.

Workbooks do tend to make the content of the social studies more definite. That fact may constitute a merit in some grades and subjects and in some stages of any grade, but it may also become a deadening handicap. The indefinite use of crutches may result in atrophy of the legs. The guiding devices of a workbook may be admirable for the beginner, but should they be used throughout an entire course? Study questions, for example, have a persuasive and convincing air about them. The student knows what to hunt for and the teacher knows what to ask when the class assembles, but should such devices be consistently utilized? Questions are just questions, whether they are found in workbooks, occur at the ends of chapters, or are asked by the teacher. Their merits depend upon the ability and skill of the framer, and their results depend upon the reaction of the student. If study questions are consistently used, when will the student learn to select important points, to read analytically, to appraise a section or chapter, to organize the material in his own mind? In other words, when will he ever learn to study instead of merely hunting for answers to set questions? Problems and projects sound like the busy work of kindergartens. They give the impression of up-to-dateness. The teacher who uses them can pose as a progressive, and the pupils who can manipulate them are regarded with respect. If such schemes are planned and mapped out indefinitely by a workbook, when is the pupil to find them for himself? Printed outline maps are no doubt beneficial, but does the completion of them assist the student in learning the shape of the area studied? If workbooks and texts are going to list specific books (alas, even the pages) for every topic, when will the student ever learn how to use a library or a book? It would seem that answers to these questions and many others of similar nature must be forthcoming before we can appraise workbooks scientifically.

From the practical standpoint, is there not a real danger of needlessly, or at least uneconomically, multiplying the paraphernalia of study? Textbooks, mapbooks, notebooks, scrapbooks, reading books, and written reports would seem to furnish adequate equipment for the dullest student. Where, then, is the niche into which workbooks can fit? The answer would seem to be that workbooks are designed to absorb at least some of the functions of these other books. If they succeed, they may render a desirable service and simplify rather than complicate the problem of the apparatus in the social studies. A further benefit which is claimed for some workbooks is that they show the student how to study. Whether

they do or not is one of the interesting questions which awaits the investigator.

The authors of some workbooks seem to have no definite idea of how their products are to be used. The prevailing attitude seems to be a tentative offering of wares with the hope that some use may be found for them. Other authors are more definite, and clearly indicate that the workbook will replace the notebook, mapbook, and written reports, and will supplement the text by copious citations to material, and by the addition of exercises and projects. If workbooks are to replace notebooks, for example, they must provide generous space. What is the student expected to do with a question in a workbook when no space is provided for its answer? Is he to record his answer on paper, give it orally in class, repeat it to himself, or to ignore the question? If no special provision is made for the answer, can workbooks supplant notebooks?

At what grade level should workbooks, assuming they are to be used, be introduced, and when should their use be discontinued? It is difficult to say how far down the scale they may be used successfully. Some seemingly excellent workbooks for the fifth grade have appeared. On the other hand, it may be asserted rather boldly that workbooks of the usual type are not successful when used with college students. It would appear that the utility of workbooks increases up to and including the second year high school, and that it probably declines after the third year in high school. It is probable that the general workbook can be adapted to more advanced students than the specific workbook, for the former can be less mechanical and can allow greater leeway in procedure.

The respective merits of general and specific workbooks as they now exist deserve consideration. The author of a general workbook must understand the methods of presentation, and must know the material of his field well enough to make a real contribution in its organization. If the author follows a freakish or unusual outline, the student has endless mechanical difficulties. The adaptation of the workbook to his text constitutes not a sound problem, but a series of annoyances. It may be doubted if the authors of general workbooks who have so far essayed the task are justified in blazing a new trail in the organization of material. They would be entirely justified if the workbook were an independent contribution, but since it is dependent upon texts an independent organization introduces the element of confusion. If all teachers were profound scholars this objection would be invalid. The general workbook has contributed little in showing the student how to use his text and the material which he already possesses. Instead it has been another task, and the regular work continues, affected but slightly by its use. Granting that they may be developed even to the point of eliminating regular textbooks, the writer holds that under present conditions the general workbook in the social studies has not proved its utility.



This generalization does not include those workbooks which purport to be general, but are in reality based upon one text.

The specific workbook is intended to facilitate the mastery of a specified text. Its objective has been clearly visioned. One of the principal features of a specific workbook is the study-guide section, the completion of which involves a careful reading of the text. How can the efficacy of a study-guide be determined? It may be said emphatically that one which makes no sense without referring to the text is hopelessly inadequate. In such case it constitutes merely a series of puzzles and possesses little value. Its completion from an open text is an empty mechanical task. If the incomplete statements show clearly the nature of the required answers, and can be completed by one who knows the material, even though he has not read the text, they are more likely to be valid. Naturally there will be some instances in which the answers will not occur to one who has not read the text, but a good study-guide will reduce such equivocal answers to the minimum. The authors of some study-guides have apparently never realized the tricky and misleading nature of the completion type of question. A well-constructed study-guide will direct the student in his reading. After he has read and completed a few lessons he begins to seize the outstanding points for himself. If a study-guide section accomplishes what it is supposed to, its use should be discontinued when it has succeeded. It is doubtful if even a dull student should be allowed to use such a device longer than one year.

A variation of the completion type of study-guide is found in the listing of items about which the pupil is to write brief statements. This method is not so definite and restrictive as the completion exercises, and may therefore be of greater merit, especially for more advanced pupils. Study questions constitute a second variation of the attempt to direct the student in his reading. What has been said of the continued use of completion exercises holds true of the continued use of study items and questions. It is encouraging to note that one author of a workbook has provided for gradually lessening the study-guide sections after the twelfth lesson.

Problems and projects are presented in such bewildering variety as to defy classification or definition. They range from simple questions to elaborate directions for the working out of detailed topics. As a list of suggestions for teachers and pupils they are no doubt useful, and the solution of a limited number will prove to be beneficial. They should, however, be regarded as suggestions and not as tasks, for the teacher will want to introduce material of his own, and pupils should contribute ideas and plans for projects and problems. If, however, the teacher and pupils feel no such urge to participate, the plans of the workbook should be followed. Workbook suggestions for projects will continue to be useful until

teachers are prolific in ideas and resourceful in methods.

The almost universal practice of giving specific citations is of doubtful value. A general bibliography, if it includes publishers, is highly useful, but when a student has access to a library, he should find not only the chapter or pages, but also the book. After he has been introduced to books in the field and has received some training and drill in their use, he should be able to find his own way. If he is ever to learn how to find books he should be able to do so in a high school library. The spoon-feeding practice of citing pages for high school students should cease, not only in workbooks, but also in texts. In addition to this aspect of specific citations the practical objections should carry weight. The paging of revised editions causes confusion if the citation is to one edition when the student has secured the other. Citations are often made to books which are rare or out of print. At least one author of a workbook has had the courage to break part of the tradition by not citing pages.

Outline maps constitute an excellent feature of many workbooks. In most cases the exercise is mere copy work, but even that has some value. The labor of finding "Trafalgar, Ulm, Austerlitz, Jena, Friedland, Moscow, Leipzig, Paris, Waterloo, Elba, Tilsit" will result in some increase of geographic-historical information. If the pupils know why they are trying to locate the places their returns will be greater. Granting that the pupil has some comprehension of what he is doing, the returns from his work are likely to be in proportion to the efforts expended. Another type of map work is the construction of a map which is not found in the text. In some instances it is made by combining the principal features of several maps, and again it consists of locating material in the text and transferring it to map form. The completion of map exercises upon printed outlines, however, fails to force the student to look at the outline. Probably the best remedy for this shortcoming is the drawing of freehand maps entirely from memory. If such an exercise precedes the completion of the printed outline it would seem that the pupil will, when both exercises are completed, get all from a map that the teacher can expect.

The tests which are included in workbooks cover the chapters, and are probably superior to those usually made by the teacher. They are not standardized, and afford nothing more than an objective basis for marking a part of the work, but that is a decided merit. At least two workbooks on the market provide definite exercises to increase the pupil's vocabulary. Most workbooks contain ample bibliographies, but in some units they are placed in the teacher's manual. Other features of various workbooks come within the scope of published discussions, and so warrant no special consideration here.

# The Meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies, Detroit, Feb. 21, 1931

REPORTED BY BESSIE L. PIERCE

The National Council for the Social Studies held their regular meeting in connection with the sessions of the Department of Superintendence, National Education Association, at Detroit, Michigan, February 21, 1931. As the Department of the Social Studies of the National Education Association, the National Council presents program at the time of meeting of the Department of Superintendence and the N. E. A. A third session each year is with the American Historical Association, whose next convention is in December, 1931, at Minneapolis.

The Detroit meeting was especially well attended and much interest was evident. Under the capable chairmanship of Mr. C. C. Barnes, of the Department of Social Studies of the Detroit schools, the programs were carried forward, and a luncheon session with over two hundred guests in attendance was held at the Fort Wayne Hotel. The program given of the various meetings is included in this report. The afternoon session, devoted to a discussion of the FIRST YEARBOOK, is not reproduced in abstracts here, but the papers read at the morning session are presented in brief by the authors. Professor Smith Burnham's address at the luncheon session was delightfully informal, as well as stimulating, but unfortunately is not in written form to be summarized here.

## PROGRAM OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

(The Department of Social Studies of the National  
Education Association)

DETROIT, MICHIGAN, FEBRUARY 21, 1931

C. C. BARNES, Detroit, Chairman Committee on Local  
Arrangements

9.30 A. M., LODGE ROOM A, MASONIC TEMPLE

*Presiding*, R. M. Tryon, Professor of the Teaching  
of History, University of Chicago; President of  
The National Council for the Social Studies

## THE TRAINING OF SOCIAL SCIENCE TEACHERS

O. W. STEPHENSON, University of Michigan, Ann  
Arbor

## OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION AS A SOCIAL STUDY

WILLIAM G. BATE, Superintendent of Schools,  
Richmond, Indiana

## RESEARCH IN THE TEACHING OF SOCIAL SCIENCE

R. O. HUGHES, Department of Curricula and  
Research, Pittsburgh, Pa.

12.00 NOON, LUNCHEON, FORT WAYNE HOTEL

*Presiding*, R. M. TRYON

## THE FUTURE OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE LIGHT OF PRESENT TRENDS

SMITH BURNHAM, Western State Teachers' College,  
Kalamazoo, Michigan

2.00 P. M.

*Presiding*, C. C. BARNES, Assistant Director Social  
Science Department, Detroit

General Presentation of the FIRST YEARBOOK of  
the National Council for the Social Studies

R. M. TRYON

## SPEAKERS:

JOHN HARBOUR, Department of History, Shaker  
Heights High School, Cleveland

CHLOE HARDY, Teacher of Social Science, Cleve-  
land Intermediate School, Detroit

W. G. KIMELL, Executive Secretary, Investigation  
of Social Studies in the Schools, American His-  
torical Association.

HOWARD E. WILSON, Graduate School of Educa-  
tion, Harvard University, Cambridge

## THE WORK OF THE COMMISSION ON HISTORY AND OTHER SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE SCHOOLS

JESSE NEWLON, Director, Lincoln School of Teachers'  
College, Columbia University, New York

*Note.*—The Yearbook of the National Council for  
the Social Studies may be purchased for two dollars  
from McKinley Publishing Company, 1021 Filbert  
Street, Philadelphia. It is sent free to members of  
the National Council for the Social Studies.

## THE TRAINING OF SOCIAL SCIENCE TEACHERS

In the paper presented by Professor Orlando W.  
Stephenson, of the University of Michigan, it was  
pointed out that those who are concerned with the  
training of teachers of the social studies are seeking  
an answer to five major problems:

*First.* What steps should be taken, if any, to ex-  
clude from entering upon a teacher training program  
those students who are personally unfit for success in  
teaching?

*Second.* What subject-matter requirements in the  
social study fields should be made of a student before  
he is permitted to enter upon such a program?

*Third.* What professional courses should a student  
in training be required to pursue as a part of his  
work in professional training?

*Fourth.* What should be the nature and extent of  
the work in directed teaching in the social science  
classroom of the high school?

*Fifth.* What should be expected of the candidate  
in the way of meeting final tests before his certificate  
is granted?

It was urged in Professor Stephenson's paper that  
steps be taken to exclude those who are personally  
unfit; that the requirements in professional and in  
subject-matter courses be greatly increased; that the  
work in directed teaching be extended to a full year;

that a master's degree be required before the teacher's certificate is granted; and that just before it is granted and as a condition of granting it, the candidate be required to pass comprehensive examinations covering content in the professional and subject-matter fields and covering what he may be expected to know about the teaching of the social studies.

"OCCUPATIONAL INFORMATION AS A SOCIAL STUDY"

BY WILLIAM G. BATE

(An abstract of remarks at the meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies in Detroit, February 21, 1931.)

"In coming before you to discuss this topic, I am quite conscious of the fact that the field of social studies in the secondary school has been, and is, the battleground of many movements which have fought their way into the curriculum of the reorganized school of today. I suppose I might better say the reorganizing school of today, because we certainly have not completed the reorganization. There are a good many conflicting ideas at present about the placement of occupational information in the school program and a wide variety of practice. In the next few minutes, I shall attempt to present to you some four or five points which I think have a bearing on this question of occupational information as a social study.

"In the first place, the social studies have an interest in the subject of occupational information from its beginning. Second, the objectives of occupational information fall within the field of social studies. Third, the contents of the typical course in occupational information classify this subject as a social study. Fourth, occupational information offers an opportunity for the social studies program to fulfill its proper function in terms of the modern secondary school program. Fifth, social studies teachers should be able to teach occupational information from the proper point of view, giving it the right emphasis, making its functions not only as an intensely practical answer to a most important need of the average pupil, but in stimulating in that pupil the growth of attitudes which will function in social, moral and civic life.

"Occupational information is still in a stage of fighting for admission as a subject in the curriculum. In examining the development of the subject we must, of course, go back to the beginning of vocational guidance movements. In the beginning, the movement was outside the school, and its earliest development in the school came through the teachers of civics who began to see a wider range of objectives for their subjects. It may be said with truth that the subject of occupational information is probably being pushed into the curriculum as a part of the modern administrative program of the secondary school. As a matter of fact, most of the changes or additions to the curriculum of the modern school have had to be pushed into the program. First, by the demand from the patrons, and secondly, through the pressure from administration, also that administration has begun to recognize the right of the subject

or activity to be included. It was so, in the case of commercial or business training; it was so, in the case of classical arts and vocational education; it was the case of civics, economics, and social problems. It was true in the case of most of the things that are today transforming the school into an agency adapted to training children for present-day life.

"Occupational information has found its way into the schools through several avenues. In some cases, it has been taken into the school curriculum through the medium of English composition. In some schools it has been carried into the course of study through vocational education. In some schools it has become a part of the home rule or advisory activities program. At any rate, it is obvious that it merits a place on the regular curriculum program, a definite time assignment, and teaching it in such a manner as to realize its functions. In estimating and appraising the objectives, one must remember, of course, that it is necessarily an integral part of the guidance program of the school as, in fact, every subject of the curriculum should be. Functioning as a part of the guidance program does not preclude the possibility of a subject being included in a departmental program. In most cases where occupational information is taught, however, it is as a part of the social studies curriculum. And, if the purpose of the social studies in the modern secondary school is the training of the boy and girl through the materials of social studies to secure a better adjustment of the individual and his present and future social, civic and economic life, certainly occupational information should have a place here.

"The typical course in occupational information does not confine itself to the mere study of occupational conditions, requirements for entrance, nature of the work, and wages paid. This course must and does concern itself with the economic and social relationships tied with the occupation of man. The problem of who should teach occupational information is also of significance. If I were faced with the necessity of picking out someone on a faculty of a secondary school to attempt the course in occupational information I should first look to the teacher in the social studies. Of all the groups in the school, I should expect to find in the social studies a group of men and women who have a broad conception and understanding of human relationships and problems.

"In presenting occupational information as a part of the program in social studies, however, I do not mean to urge the introduction of courses to the social studies program which would preclude or displace history. I should not take away from the program of social studies one single unit or course which can be made to function in terms of the accepted objectives and obligations of the junior and senior high schools. Following our good friend, Dr. Braith: to provide an integrating education, to satisfy an important, immediate and assured future need, to help pupils explore interests, aptitudes and capacities, to reveal possibilities, and to start each pupil toward a career which is likely to be of profit to him and to



the state is an important function of the school, and if through occupational information the school is helped to do this it should be encouraged."

#### "RESEARCH IN THE TEACHING OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES"

(An abstract of remarks by R. O. Hughes at the meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies in Detroit, February 21, 1931.)

For purposes of this discussion, I am defining *research* as "a careful study made with the purpose of determining the facts that apply to a given problem." I shall not attempt to draw any clear distinction between research and service study. To the average classroom teacher it is the service study phase of research which is most likely to be practically helpful.

The development of research in the social studies is recent. Several committees have exerted a vigorous, and probably beneficial, influence upon the study of these subjects, but their suggestions were the result of their subjective opinions rather than of any scientific investigation of the field. Dr. Dawson's *History Inquiry* in 1924 was perhaps the first serious fact-gathering undertaking in the field. Now we have the commission of the American Historical Association on the Investigation of the Social Studies in the Schools, ably directed by Professor Krey and Mr. Kimmel. It seems to have both the time and money to do a piece of work that should have helpful and far-reaching results. Much research must be carried on by groups or committees such as the one just mentioned, but they in turn must go to the principals or the teachers for information that will form the basis of their own conclusions. Studies calling for a wide range of information and a vast amount of detail, will have to be made by the central organization.

There are numerous problems, however, which a teacher may investigate and study without any direct aid from outside sources. Among such types of studies we may mention the following. Some of these

problems are almost equally appropriate to other subjects, but some are especially significant in the social studies.

1. Does the average high school pupil like history? How may interest in the subject be aroused and maintained?
  2. What particular difficulties may handicap the pupil in social science study—reading, knowledge of how to study, ineffective presentation of the topics?
  3. Are there too many failures in social science classes? If so, why?
  4. What is the most satisfactory method of presenting and studying social science—the contract method, the Morrison procedure, laboratory or library method, or the old-time recitation method brought up to date?
  5. How shall the material be organized? It will be understood that organization will be by units, but what shall be included in each unit? Shall the order of topics be primarily chronological or topical? Shall we organize our material in separate subject fields or in fusion courses?
  6. To what extent may supplementary work be required with beneficial results?
  7. On what basis shall textbooks be chosen?
  8. Is there an ideal size of class in social science subjects?
  9. What methods of testing shall be employed in social science? If we use mainly the new type tests, what kind of questions are best adapted to our field?
- In research in social science the investigator must be open-minded, able to secure the co-operation of pupils and others who can contribute first-hand information, must state his problem definitely, and must limit its scope to the range that he can properly survey. He must not try to prove more than the facts at his command do prove. A social science teacher who will analyze his own situation, select problems that obviously need attention, and follow scientific methods in reaching conclusions will find much interesting opportunity for activities that should help himself and others as well.

## A Basis for the Selection of Materials in Social Studies Teaching

BY PROFESSOR ELMER ELLIS, UNIVERSITY OF MISSOURI.

Whether we call our basis for the selection of materials for the social studies objectives, aims, purposes, or by some other term, its recognized importance makes it worth while regularly to re-examine the principles underlying our work; for it is only as our fundamental philosophy is sound, that our improvements in technique will improve our results. There is probably no field in which there is so much disagreement as to these underlying purposes as in the field of the social studies. The individual teacher in planning her course and her lesson is assailed by conflicting counsel with the result that

her teaching easily becomes haphazardly factual and uninspired by any clearly visioned purpose. A reconsideration and restatement of the basis for the selection of materials is eminently needed.

In the not very distant past we had a multiplicity of aims commonly accepted for the social studies. They were to be practical ethics, patriotism, ideals, and a number of qualities more specific in nature. Every value that anyone thought might grow out of such a study was set up as a specific aim for the teacher and the textbook writer to achieve. This resulted in a selection of material for social studies



courses that was misleading in its general conceptions, and which in time became a deserved object of professional scorn. The reaction was distinctly against the multiplicity of specific aims, and the use of technically unsound subject-matter. The changed concept of objectives for the social studies as it evolved has been put in many ways, and can fairly be summarized, I believe, in this manner: The function of citizenship in a democracy demands an understanding of contemporary institutions and problems with which the citizen must deal. The customary social studies supply this on the intellectual level of the pupil. Through history a reasonable understanding of the evolution of the whole of modern society is secured, the development of important institutions in modern life is made understandable, and forces that have moved men in the past, both in groups and as individuals, are explained. Other social studies are special considerations of the functions of institutions and principles in modern life. Ideals and attitudes are included in the courses as factors in history and modern life, and the acquisition of many socially valuable ones by the pupil is expected to accompany the study. But the emphasis is upon giving the pupil the means to intelligent attitudes and ideals rather than directly teaching them. This ideal has, of course, never been achieved even approximately, but it is the fundamental aim that dominates most of the newer courses of study, textbooks, and teacher training programs. Moreover, the tentative list of objectives drawn up by the Krey Committee seems to be directly in this tradition.<sup>1</sup> They would all promote good citizenship by making modern life comprehensible to the individual so that he can act intelligently in relation to it.

Yet this conception has never been complete master of the field, and criticism of it by an important group of curriculum specialists has been steadily growing. The method of the job-analysis has proved so successful in the vocational subjects that a desire to apply it to the citizenship curriculum is quite natural. It is not necessarily proposed to substitute new subjects for old, but rather to select new materials for those courses and so rearrange them that they will give certain specific mental sets to the pupils studying them. These attitudes are to be determined by the mental sets of an abstraction called "the good citizen." The curriculum maker imagines how this abstraction would think and act in contact with a specific situation, and these mental reactions are the things with which he would indoctrinate our pupils, this process taking place in part, at least, through the medium of the social studies courses.

This theory is made more attractive by the specific examples its advocates have chosen to illustrate their method of carrying it out. By selecting only the more generally agreed upon values that grow out of the social studies courses they erect these into specific objectives which should determine the choice and arrangement of the material in teaching certain

phases of history or civics or economics. Thus they would be more sure of securing that value out of that subject. Stripped of all verbiage, it means simply that the basis of the selection of materials for the social studies shall no longer be aimed primarily at understanding modern society, but instead at indoctrinating with ready made interpretations in order to secure a large array of valuable mental sets toward specific situations.

The social studies teacher and the subject-matter specialist must bear a share of the responsibility for this point of view. Many of them have preached one principle and practiced another. When Professor Thomas H. Briggs writes, "It is futile to argue that 'facts should be impartially presented.' In practice no such thing is possible either in elementary or secondary schools," he is drawing a conclusion based upon the manner in which the social studies are frequently presented.<sup>2</sup> Writers of textbooks, teachers, and makers of courses of study often conceive of each subject as a single pattern of thought to be taught to each pupil. Each epoch of history is subject to one interpretation only, and that is learned more or less memoriter by each pupil. Even the problems of democracy course as often presented is not so much an attempt at the understanding of important problems as it is a means of indoctrination with a specific attitude toward each problem. This condition grows so easily out of the use of the textbook and lecture methods that the fact passes unnoticed that it really constitutes indoctrination toward a certain concept of history, or government, or economic principles, albeit indoctrination in the most widely accepted current interpretations. Thus in spite of our differently stated aims, the social studies courses in practice frequently attempt to give a single standardized conception of past and present civilization instead of a rich background of experience in which more than one thought pattern or interpretation is possible. It is only natural, then, that the curriculum specialist should become impatient with our idealistic objectives which seem to justify any and all kinds of subject-matter. Consequently, there ought to be little reason for surprise when he suggests that this process should be applied to more specific elements, and the results subjected to accurate measurement.

We are now faced with this proposal to abandon the older ideal and accept that of the job-analysis curriculum. The point at issue as I see it is not so much with the method of the job-analysis, as some such principle has always been the justification of the social studies courses, as it is with the concept of the good citizen that these curriculum makers seem to possess. Is a good citizen one who has a specific pattern of thought and habitual reaction to particular stimuli, the specific pattern to be determined in detail by the curriculum maker and on all controversial points by the state legislatures? Obviously objections at once appear to such a procedure.

Fundamentally it would be education for a static society—not training to meet a new situation, but training to meet certain standardized situations which are of importance today and will probably be different tomorrow. It would be education for followers and not for leaders or even for an independent citizenry. We can, no doubt, by means of a curriculum such as is advocated create a state in which habituated reactions to specific situations will be dominant among its citizens—and individual initiative, independence, and the ability to make reasonable adjustments to unforeseen conditions will be correspondingly weakened. Or we can do as seems to be more in accordance with a democratic state, train the citizen to meet all civic situations with the best understanding that the school can give him of the forces at work in society, and with those attitudes, and ideals that grow out of such an understanding.

The difference in the ideal is one between a public meeting its problems with as complete an understanding of them as the individual is able to achieve, as opposed to a public reacting according to fixed habits in relation to specific and artificially simplified situations. In the education of the first the emphasis is upon teaching how to think in any citizenship situation, in the second upon indoctrinating with what to think in specific situations.

The job-analysis curriculum makers would object to this contrast and protest that their proposal to indoctrinate for specific situations does not imply that the pupil would not get a realistic understanding of modern civilization through the usual social studies courses. They do not propose to eliminate these courses from the curriculum, but merely to set up numerous specific attitudes that in many cases are their normal outcomes, and thus reorganize and shift the emphasis in the teaching so as to insure their achievement. The difficulty here, it seems to me, is that such a procedure is an impossible attempt to eat one's cake and still have it. If we are to use our customary social studies courses to make the citizen understand the forces and institutions with which they have to deal, those courses must be as realistic and objective as it is possible to make them, or any value of that kind is lost. It is clearly lost when we teach them with the aim that they are to indoctrinate the pupil with certain specific attitudes and habits. One curriculum maker suggests this procedure in a history class: "In connection with the story of unjust newspaper attacks on Washington and Lincoln we can induce in pupils disgust for the carping criticism of public officials and can build up ideals of criticising only constructively and justly. We can use the case of partisanism and stampede at the time of the Civil War to set the pupils against succumbing to mob manias. In connection with instances of extension of the suffrage we can raise the question of the importance of exercising the right of suffrage when gained. In connection with Jackson and nullification we can discuss the

doing of public duty regardless of popular approval. We can illustrate from history the truth that any deep-seated changes require time for their realization, that we are the heirs of the ages, that evolution is a better method of progress than revolution." Moreover, the same writer adds, "The teacher must repeatedly lecture himself about his temptation to teach his subject rather than to train his pupils for citizenship through his subject as a tool, and must particularly charge himself with his duty to utilize opportunities for incidental teaching."<sup>3</sup> In other words, an understanding of the development and background of modern civilization is not so important to the future citizen as indoctrination with specific attitudes. The history teacher cannot serve two masters, and she must teach history or indoctrinate attitudes. Whichever she does will be her basis for the selection of materials for her history course. This illustration concerned only incidental teaching. To use an example of more direct indoctrination, consider the proposal to organize the history of American foreign policy about the concept "America the big brother to the nations."<sup>4</sup> Undoubtedly it would be possible to utilize such an organization and concept to indoctrinate each pupil with international attitudes that we all might agree the past has always meant a selection of materials emphasized out of all proportion to their historical significance. It is hard to see how it could be otherwise. The classroom teacher met with the problem of building up a number of specific attitudes through a course in history has no alternative but to select her material so as to secure them, and an objective understanding of the past suffers as a consequence.

It would seem that the job-analysis curriculum maker for the social studies has lost sight of the important qualities necessary for good citizenship in his careful study of details. The trees seem to obstruct his vision of the forest. Professor Charles C. Peters' thoughtful "blueprint of an optimum citizen" would surely require above and beyond any specific indoctrination a very mature understanding of modern society. Where the error is made, it seems to me, is in assuming that through the usual social studies courses the pupil can gain that understanding, and at the same time be indoctrinated with a variety of ready made judgments and mental sets regarding that society. The two processes are a contradiction of terms. When Professor Briggs suggests that the training in how to think is for the potential leaders and indoctrinating with what to think is for the less gifted, he is making a distinction that it is impossible to make in training citizens in a democracy.<sup>5</sup> Well may our craft envy the easier task of the citizenship teacher in Italy or Russia! A democracy is based, correctly or incorrectly seems to be beside the point, upon the assumption that the individual will make reasonably moral

were good. Yet every historian would probably agree that such a concept is essentially misinformation. Teaching American foreign policy about such a concept would blind the future citizen to the realities behind international relations and forever handicap him in attempting to make intelligent judgments regarding them.

History aimed at inculcating specific attitudes in decisions. In training that individual it seems primarily essential that he be given just as realistic an understanding of the problems of citizenship as he is able to acquire, unpolluted by selections of material designed to give him predetermined reactions to the problems.

This is not to argue that there should be no indoctrination of the moral virtues in the public schools, that habits of good citizenship should not be developed by proper school administration, or even that courses should not be taught designed specifically to develop citizenship ideals. These can be done without interfering with the principal function of the school in making citizens. This function, it seems to me, is to give him a realistic and objective understanding of modern civilization. It is

performed at present by the courses in history, geography, civics, sociology, economics, and problems of democracy. These same courses cannot perform this function and at the same time be used as a medium for indoctrinating the pupil with specific attitudes toward the problems he is trying to understand objectively. It is of great importance to the future of America that we continue to make this understanding the basis for the selection of materials for these courses.

Any other course, it seems to me, is like sending a ship to find an unknown port, and because we mistrust the ability of the pilot, we refuse to give him an accurate compass or chronometer and force him to follow our own specific directions instead.

<sup>1</sup> A. C. Krey, "Thirty Years After the Committee of Seven," *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK* (February, 1929), XX, 66-67.

<sup>2</sup> Thomas H. Briggs, *Curriculum Problems* (New York, 1923), p. 16.

<sup>3</sup> Charles Clinton Peters, *Objectives and Procedures in Civic Education* (New York, 1930), pp. 150, 151.

<sup>4</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 40-42.

<sup>5</sup> Thomas H. Briggs, *The Great Investment, Secondary Education in a Democracy* (Cambridge, 1930), p. 31.

## History Teaching in Other Lands

### French Elementary Schools

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*Programs and Instructions.* In France elementary education (beyond the kindergarten, which is not included in this discussion) is concerned with three kinds of schools:

1. The primary elementary schools, in which attendance is compulsory for pupils from six to thirteen. [These schools have an enrollment of slightly more than three million pupils.] In certain places these schools may add a supplementary course (*cours complémentaire*), which follows, in general, the program of the higher elementary schools for two years.

*Editor's Note.*—This is the sixth installment of the reports of the Commission on History Teaching appointed by the International Committee of Historical Sciences. The Commission is composed of the following: Professor Gustave Glotz (France), Chairman; Dr. Otto Brandt (Germany), Secretary and Reporter; Don Rafael Altamira (Spain), Professor Edv. Bull (Norway), Senator C. Calisse (Italy), Dr. W. Carlgren (Sweden), Count Alfonso Celso (Brazil), Professor A. Domanovsky (Hungary), His Excellency Augustin Edwards (Chili), Professor M. Handelsman (Poland), Professor Frans van Kalken (Netherlands), Professor A. C. Krey (United States of America), Professor C. Marinescu (Rumania), Dr. H. Nabholz (Switzerland), Mme. Marie Nielson (Denmark), Dr. M. Pokrovsky (U. S. S. R.), Dr. J. Susta (Czechoslovakia), Professor Tenhaeff (Netherlands).

The reports will appear in full in the *Bulletin of the International Committee of Historical Sciences*, subscriptions to which (at \$1.00 for five numbers, or 25 cents a number) may be placed with Faxon and Co., 83 Francis Street, Boston, Mass.

2. The higher elementary schools and vocational schools which are open to young people who have obtained the elementary school certificate and have taken the upper course of the elementary school for a year. [The work in the higher elementary schools lasts three years and is taken by about 100,000 pupils, including those in the supplementary courses (*cours complémentaires*) in the primary elementary schools.]

3. The elementary normal schools which train elementary school teachers in a three-year course.

We are going to make a study of the teaching of history in these three types of schools at the present time. In the first place, we will examine and study the official documents; that is to say, the courses of study and the instructions which accompany them. These courses of study and instructions are of rather recent date. It is interesting to observe that they have appeared since the war.

The programs for the supplementary courses for the higher elementary schools and for the normal schools were revised by the decree and the *Arrêtés* of August 18, 1920; the instructions were issued September 30th of the same year (*Organization et Programmes des cours complémentaires des écoles primaires supérieures et des écoles normales primaires*, *Imprimerie des Journaux Officiels*, Paris, 1920). The programs for the elementary schools



were established by two *Arrêtés* of February 23, 1923, and the Instructions were published by the *Imprimerie des Journaux Officiels* (leaflet No. 40 of the *Journal Officiel*, taken from the journal of June 22, 1923).

We are going to seek in these documents material with which to answer questions which may be asked concerning the teaching of history, though we shall not analyze them one by one. While the Instructions as a whole are rather summary, and do not pretend to give a complete and logical exposition of theory, nevertheless the ideas which inspired them will clearly appear.

The pedagogy of any subject depends upon the answers to a double series of questions. You may ask (1) Why is a given subject taught; in this case, why is history taught? For what purpose is it taught? (2) How shall history be taught? What method and what procedures are to be used?

*Method and Procedures.* Logically this question should be considered after the first; but we can complete our discussion of the matter at this point, for the Instructions are extremely liberal on this subject. For the elementary schools, they say: "The *Conseil supérieur*<sup>1</sup> does not have to consider the methods to be followed in the teaching of history, for here the teachers are allowed a great deal of freedom." In regard to the higher elementary schools: "The teacher is free to choose the procedures which he thinks will be useful in effective teaching; he should not feel obliged to spend most of the time of his class in developing all parts of the course in the same detail." The Instructions are even more liberal for the normal schools: "The professor may even take liberties with the course of study by shortening the time given to certain sections in order that others may be treated more fully. The important thing is to accustom the students to consider questions of primary interest in all their principal aspects."

The teacher should plan his instruction with regard to the ability of his class, with regard to his own aptitudes, and with regard to the local resources which are at his disposal, and which may make the instruction more striking and lifelike. The Instructions manifest complete confidence in him.

However, the teacher is warned against practices and procedures which, when unskillfully used, sometimes make history instruction misleading. The author seems to have in mind an important statement of Langlois and Seignobos: "Historical facts are localized; they took place at a given time and in a given country. If you remove from historical facts the statement of the time and place of their occurrence, they lose their historical character." (Langlois and Seignobos, *Introduction to the Study of History*, a book which is often used.) The Instructions of 1923 say: "The *Conseil supérieur* makes a point of opposing the views of certain educators who, in order to avoid excessive memory work, would like to eliminate dates from the teaching of history. Without dates there is no order in time." The *Conseil*

*supérieur* has specified that the children must learn not only the principal facts of our national history, but their dates. The dates need not be numerous—thirty or so in the elementary course, and another thirty in the middle course. Only under these conditions will the pupil know how to arrange facts in their time relations and gain an idea of historical evolution.

The Instructions are even more imperative regarding another question of the same sort. Relying upon the laws of child psychology, they insist that the liberty of the teacher is limited by this psychology. They strictly condemn the method which, "supposedly based on the well-known pedagogical rule of going from the known to the unknown, advises going from the present to the past, that is, teaching at first, recent history, and then going back to earlier times." They declare that this method is absolutely impracticable. "It is impossible to turn time inside out like a glove.... Besides being unnatural, this method also falsifies in the child's mind the sense of time and the historical sense.... For our pupils what is first learned happened first, and what is last learned happened last. If you should speak of Vercingetorix after having spoken of Clovis, the children would believe that Vercingetorix came after Clovis. Even the knowledge of dates would be powerless to react against this belief, which is so much stronger because it is spontaneous."

The Instructions, to which we must return later, state that "a comparison of the present and the past is one of the ways to put life into history instruction." But here again they warn of a danger. "Any means which can be used to obtain this result are good, so long as you do not fall into childish exaggerations. Let us be careful not to falsify historical reality under the pretext of using modern pedagogical methods. Just as it is advisable to show the children authentic documents, such as old papers or old coins, or to show and to explain to them the monuments and historic remains of each period, or to illustrate general history by the historical traditions of the locality, so it is dangerous to let them attend or take part in 'reproductions' in which historical truth is inevitably violated. Even moving pictures, so useful when actual scenes and the movement and life of existing objects are to be reproduced, run the risk of making history into a Dumas novel, and so of creating deplorable errors in the minds of our pupils. History is, of course, a resurrection. But the past is, nevertheless, the past, and a false idea of the past is given when it is made to seem the present."

All these directions are certainly the result of exact interpretations of the rules of the historical method, and they must be approved.

Now we are going to take up other problems which have caused many lively discussions.

*Aims of the Teaching of History in Elementary Schools.* Here we may ask two questions. With what should the teaching of history concern itself—what should be the subject-matter? What influence can it have on the general culture of the pupils? Can



it be an instrument of culture in elementary education?

The Subject-Matter for History Instruction. In order to define clearly the position of the author of the Instructions on this essential point, we must review the various ideas which have been held by historians, or rather, by teachers of history, since the last third of the nineteenth century.

After 1870, everybody seemed to be agreed on the rôle of history; it was to exalt national feeling, and to be the teacher and inspirer of patriotism. M. Lavissee, whose influence was preponderant, wanted to give the children "Knowledge of their country in order to lead them to love their country." Without doubt he was careful to condemn what he called "the two sentiments which bring utter ruin"—national arrogance and hatred of the foreigner. Undoubtedly he proclaims in the fine instructions of 1890 for secondary schools, that "in France, under pain of losing our national character, we must neither forget the man in the citizen, nor lessen the place of humanity for the apparent profit of our country." Nevertheless, opposition rose to his idea of the teaching of history. We do not have to seek the causes of this opposition here, but merely to note them. Toward the beginning of the twentieth century, the claim was made that anxiety to awaken and to strengthen patriotism must necessarily result in a distortion of historical truth, since it made necessary the presentation of selected facts. The child's right to know the truth was proclaimed, and history was to be taught only for its own sake, in all exactitude and with no regard for moral or civic training. Finally, before the war, and above all, since the war, another tendency appeared, grew rapidly and went to extremes in some cases. Cultivation of national feeling runs the risk of contradicting a great historic fact which is of more importance—the interdependence of peoples. It is not patriotism that should be taught, but human brotherhood.

What attitude is taken by the men responsible for the directions which determine the trend of instruction in history? They react strongly against the excesses or the errors of these recent theories, and reaffirm the necessity of giving a preponderant place to the teaching of national history.

In the Instructions for the elementary schools, this statement occurs, "The question is sometimes raised as to what the character of history and geography instruction in the primary school should be. Attempts have been made to oppose the scientific viewpoint and the civic point of view; one group claiming that the historian, even in the elementary school, should be careful to tell the whole truth, others that the teacher should strive, above everything else, to stimulate patriotism by a recital of the glories and a description of the beauties of our country.

"We refuse to state the problem in these terms. We refuse to oppose the rights of science to the rights of France. French patriotism has nothing to fear from the truth. National unity has been cemented not only by common glories, but also, and

above all, by common sufferings. The teacher does not have to hide them. Of course, the child in the elementary school is too young to study and discuss freely all the documents over which historians pore. But the teacher may tell him without hesitation the history of our country as it has been established by the impartial research of scholars. The position of France in the world is great enough, her rôle has been noble enough, so that teaching which is sincere and uncompromisingly consistent with the truth will favor the development of patriotism. This should be the aim of the teaching of history and geography in the elementary school."

In the higher elementary schools national history is again given the largest place.

In the Instructions for the normal schools, the thought becomes more precise and vigorous. "A final word on the general spirit of instruction in history. While the courses in the normal schools take up the history of the Great Powers of Europe and of the world, in contrast to those of the higher elementary schools, which are almost entirely limited to natural history, nevertheless, France should remain foremost in the mind of the professor. The history of France has a peculiar educative value, because France has always been the educator of the human race, in the time of the Crusades, as in the period of the Revolution under Louis XIV, as in the age of enlightenment. Even when other nations are studied, the future teachers must be shown the rôle of France and her historic mission. As teachers they will be the representatives of the national spirit in each community. The school system is the backbone of the nation, and, of all the school subjects of instruction, history, together with civic morality, can best consolidate the French will. The normal schools would fail in their first duty if, for lack of instruction in history inspired by the proper national feeling, their pupils should enter the teaching profession without loving the spirit of France."

The idea suggested by this extract is expressed so sincerely that it would be an injustice to misinterpret it. We are considering, not propaganda nor the fanatical distortion of historic truth, but only "proper national feeling" and "sincere teaching." French children will be taught about their own country, first of all because it is an historic reality, and a beautiful one as well. If it is admitted, as the instructions admit implicitly, that the special duty of history is to show the children the facts of the social world (as physics or biology introduces them to the facts of the physical world), and consequently to fit them better for public life; if it is admitted that they will understand the present better when history has shown them the origins of present conditions, it may be asked if it is not the society of the country in which he will live that the pupil must naturally learn to know first.

As M. Rey<sup>2</sup> says, "It is not the function of the human will to create, annihilate, or transform patriotic feeling as it sees fit. That is a social reality....

"The territorial organization controls, at present, all social relations and duties toward the social group of which we are a part. The laws which regulate all human relations, and in particular economic relations, are at present subordinate to the existence of the state, and consequently to the existence of the nation. Improvements in these laws are necessarily dependent on the national spirit of the nation in question. The national idea is thus seen to be related to certain social and moral progress, to a mission of justice and civilization, and even, from a more material point of view, to certain economic advantages. Therefore, while it is important to consider and prepare for the changes which the future will bring, without prejudice, and without superstitious regard for the past, superstitious regard for the future must not make us forget present realities and the duties connected with them."

The preponderant position given to the study of national history in the elementary school courses may be justified in this way;<sup>3</sup> but this history is not taught by itself. A nation does not exist isolated in the corner of a continent, living on its own stock of ideas, and protecting itself jealously from all outside influences. This is not true, especially in the case of France. France has received much, and has probably given more; in any case her life has mingled intimately with the life of neighboring and even distant countries. Our pupils should therefore learn the history of these countries, at least as far as this is necessary in order to know better and more exactly the history of our own nation.

In the elementary schools, the beginning and middle courses are devoted to the history of France, but the upper course gives some knowledge of general history. "The pupils are to be given an idea of general history. General history will be studied in relation to the history of France; it will give an opportunity to review national history, but this review will not run the risk of boring the pupils, for it will be made from a new viewpoint."

In the higher elementary schools, this material appears definitely in the third-year course. "History of France and ideas of general history from 1852 to 1920. Since the history of France in the last seventy years cannot be separated from the history of the other great Powers, ideas of general history, which should not be absent in the first two years, will be added to national history more explicitly in the third year." The course includes, as a matter of fact, not only the history of the European Powers and of the "world crisis" of 1914-1918, but also the history of the countries of the Far East, of the United States, and of the more important states of South America.

In the normal school "the courses take up the history of the Great Powers of Europe and the world, in contrast to those of the higher elementary schools, which are almost entirely limited to the history of France." "France, nevertheless, should remain foremost in the mind of the professor."

The whole history of France, however, tends to give ideas of solidarity with other nations. It is an historic fact that modern nations are becoming materially and morally more and more dependent on each other. An international life is being created and the movement has gone on with increasing rapidity since the war. It is also a fact that this movement tends to solve the problem of relationships among the various peoples by justice and right rather than by the intolerable solution of force. Our courses of study do not ignore this, and do not wish our pupils to ignore it. In the elementary school there is a section on "the War of 1914-1918." In the higher elementary school the course ends with a description of the present day world, in which the following chapters may be especially noted: "International Life—The principle of nationality—Arbitration—The League of Nations—The rôle of France in the World." In the normal school we find the following headings: "Conditions of Europe in 1914—Principal phases of the War of 1914-1918—The Peace Treaties—The new Europe—The League of Nations—French civilization and the rôle of France in the world." Evidently, the professor of history must remain on the historical level when he treats these questions, just as when he deals with national history. In so far as standards can be set up, in one way or another, it is the business of civic education to point them out, and the law has so little intention of transforming history into propaganda of any sort that, in order to avoid any misapprehension, civic education is attached to the course in morals, and, in the normal school, to the program of political economy where we find again the same headings: "War and peace—Arbitration—the League of Nations." This is an important point.

Perhaps it is fitting, in order to show how anxious the authorities are to open the minds of the pupils to the ideas of peace, symbolized by the League of Nations, to recall the touching circulars sent to the teaching force by the Ministers of Public Instruction, from M. L. Berard to M. Herriot, on Armistice Day, and the circulars of M. Jouvenal on the League of Nations. A summary of these efforts will be found in the letters written by the cabinet minister François Albert to the General Secretary of the League of Nations on August 20, 1924.<sup>4</sup>

It does not seem that France has many lessons to receive from this leader, as M. Prudhommeaux admits in his commentary on the letter of M. François Albert.

A word should be added on the distribution of the material in the courses, because this distribution is determined by one of the aims of the teaching of history, that of showing the pupils the origins of questions which they will have to face later as citizens. It has been observed that to obtain this result it is probably unnecessary to cover more than the last two hundred years. Therefore, modern history and contemporary history are given the largest place in the courses of study.

In the elementary schools, the beginning course is devoted to a study of the history of France from the origins to 1610, and the middle course gives four half-hour periods a week to the history of France from 1610 to the present. Whenever the middle course takes two successive years, the second year is reserved for the period from 1815 to 1918.

In the higher elementary schools where there is one hour of history a week in each of the three years, the same idea prevails. In the first year, the course begins with a survey of Europe at the end of the fifteenth century and goes to 1774. The second year covers the period from 1774 to 1851, and the third year the period 1852-1920.

In the normal schools, two hours of history a week are given for three years. In the first year ancient history and Europe to the end of the Middle Ages are studied, in the second year the period from the beginning of the Renaissance to 1815, in the third year the period from 1815 to the present.

*Historical Culture in the Elementary Schools.* Can history serve as a cultural influence for pupils of the elementary school system? Without doubt it can; at any rate the instructions say so and think so, even in the case of the pupils in the primary elementary school.

Textbooks on pedagogy are accustomed to stress the action of history on the imagination, the memory, etc., when they wish to discuss its influence on general culture.

The Instructions are silent on this point, naturally enough, for if it were only a question of developing imagination or memory, other subjects could boast of obtaining more noticeable results. History has its own rôle in the general training of the mind. It develops the critical spirit in a definite way. Historical facts, known only through the testimony of others, and not by direct observation, are more difficult to grasp than the material facts of physical and natural sciences which may be directly verified. Historical facts may be found only by patient, sincere research, which advances only slowly, which verifies and criticises with the sole desire of attaining a truth, however fragmentary it may be. Perhaps this method of observing social facts, this mental attitude, this "historical spirit," is the most profitable result of the study of history, and the most "useful" result for the life of the man and of the citizen. It will guide us in all problems of life involving the interpretation of political and economic facts, etc., whether they be the acts of a man, or the documents of a trial. In these cases, we should use instinctively the same method of careful and precise search for the truth.

Moreover, history shows us the evolution of human societies, by making us see the differences which distinguish the various societies which have existed in the past, and, in the same way, it allows us to think serenely of the changes which the future may be preparing. In any case, it gives us a framework for classifying ideas which we may acquire later. Doubtless it is in this sense that the Instructions use the

word "culture" when they introduce very brief lessons on ancient history into the upper course of the primary elementary school. "However simple these lessons must be, they are indispensable if the education given to French children is to be a modest but true culture. There is no doubt that the problems raised by the Renaissance and Reformation demand more maturity than is possessed by eight-year-old children. But there is no question of stating these problems with all their philosophical implications. We are only trying to give the children some landmarks which will allow them to find their way in the midst of facts and to place events in their proper period in the past."

However, the comparative method makes it possible to go further with more advanced classes. "Each teacher should take every opportunity to compare the past with the present, by showing the contrasts, the differences or the similarities, by showing the ways in which mankind has changed, and those in which it has remained the same. It is even useful to go from the present to the past when using this comparative method. However, this is to be done only after having gone from the past to the present. When the history of a century has been described, the children may be asked to picture to themselves the state of civilization during that century, the resources which were available to satisfy the material and moral needs of the people, their dwellings, their clothing, their food, their roads, their government, their knowledge, and their beliefs. They may be asked, above all, to try to understand the inadequacies of ancient civilization in comparison with our own, and to seek, among our economic and intellectual resources, the ones which our predecessors lacked. It is difficult for a child to conceive that men lived without the conveniences created by the science of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. And it is impossible to make him realize the progress which has been made without these excursions into the past. However, first of all, he must have begun by fixing in his mind the exact order of historical events."

The advantages expected for general culture seem even more striking in the higher elementary schools and in the normal schools, in view of the pupils' greater age.

In the higher elementary schools, "history should try to give understanding of political and social facts. It is especially important to try to stimulate the habits of observation and reflection. No proper name, no date should be mentioned which is not absolutely necessary to make an episode or an explanation clear. The number of facts given must be limited; they must be well chosen so that the only ones mentioned are those characteristic of an epoch or a country and those which have had important results. It is especially important to explain those facts which are mentioned." To choose the facts characteristic of an epoch and a country, to explain them so as to stimulate the habit of observing and reflecting on those facts—all these things evidently create, in some form and to some degree, the historical spirit.



New progress is made in the normal schools. "In general the professor does not have to give an unbroken narrative of the course of events. He is to make the pupils think about the causes and the effects of great events, and about the formation and development of human institutions." From the second year on, "continuity is abandoned, and chronological order does not have to be followed. The students are asked to examine the principal problems which have arisen in Europe since the Renaissance. According to the general principle of the new plan of study, they have the sensation of discovering something new the first year, by plunging into the study of the ancient world, and in the second year a new surprise awaits them. They see grouped, according to their logical relations, facts which they have been accustomed to place automatically in chronological order. The professor may even take liberties with the program, and shorten the study of certain parts, in order to devote more time to others. The essential thing is to accustom the student to study questions of primary importance in all their principal aspects."

Better yet, "Textbooks, however good, are not sufficient when historical subjects are to be studied thoroughly; sources must be used. History is no longer to be taught in the normal schools by methods which differ from those used in the teaching of literature and science. In the teaching of literature the pupil is placed in direct contact with the texts; in the teaching of science he is placed in direct contact with natural objects; the teaching of history should put him in direct contact, if not with facts which no longer exist, at least with the immediate evidence of those facts, with first-hand documents. The study of contemporary testimony and monuments must often be substituted for the lecture of the professor or the reading of the textbook. In some cases, the lecture should be preceded by such study. Just as a lecture in botany or zoology should be only a summary of several periods of observation and dissection of plants or animals, so lectures in history in the normal school should be only a summary of observation and analysis of well selected documents. The students will gain a much more vivid impression from such study than they will from reading a condensed narrative; they will see the living past, instead of a mere skeleton."

Thus our future teachers have a certain amount of practice in historical criticism—not that we intend to train them in that philological criticism in which Renan saw the essence and the model of historical work. However, they will have to evaluate, to compare, and to judge documents. This is a precious culture which can only spur them on to the search for truth, teach them modesty in making affirmations, make them careful about shades of meaning. These things give them the key to the understanding of all human truth; in short, they preserve them from dogmatism; and we may add that this is the fundamental principle of the Instructions in all subjects.

Will it be said that this, for many reasons, is only an over-ambitious program? We cannot discuss this question here without going beyond the limits of our subject. However, in order to reach the heart of that subject, we will make this simple remark.

The Instructions give France the first place in the teaching of history in the elementary schools, convinced that the study of the history of France will favor "the development and expansion of patriotic feeling." Some people seem to fear that the historical explanations in our classes will not be impartial. Let them think of the scruples which made the author of the Instructions insist on training in criticism for future teachers. In the theory, the two ideas, far from excluding each other, harmonize in reality:—"French patriotism has nothing to fear from the truth."

## French Secondary Schools

Secondary schools controlled by the French government give instruction to about 110,000 boys in *lycées* and *collèges*, and to 50,000 girls in *lycées*, *collèges*, and secondary courses. The *lycées* are state institutions. The *collèges* and the secondary courses are municipal institutions which are aided and supervised by the state. In addition, there are a great many private secondary schools. A list of the state schools and of the more important private schools will be found in "L'enseignement en France," by Camille Richard.

The program of secondary education in the schools for girls is being revised and still awaits certain legislative measures to complete the reform begun by the decrees of 1924, 1928, and 1929. Most of the girls study at the secondary school for seven years and prepare for the baccalaureate, taking the same courses that are given in the boys' schools. Other girls, whose families prefer them to have an easier schedule, take a course which gives them a diploma of secondary studies at the end of the sixth year. Most of these students continue their work another year and may obtain a supplementary diploma. History courses are the same in all divisions of secondary education, both for boys and for girls.

French secondary education for boys and for girls is characterized by the fact that it forms a complete unit from the cultural point of view. It does not have to be completed by a college course, as in Anglo-Saxon countries. A young man or woman wishing to begin an artistic or business career after leaving secondary school will have acquired there enough general culture to be interested in the various manifestations of human activity; at least, this is the aim which has been set. This is marked by granting the baccalaureate at the end of the secondary studies, and by the fact that philosophy is given a very large place in the work of the final year.

This special interest in general culture, which is not limited to national or practical needs, may be easily seen in the courses in history and in the methods recommended for applying them. In the present

course of study, which dates from 1925, as in those which preceded it, an important place is given to general world history. Moreover, care is taken to acquaint the pupils with the processes of historical science, as far as possible.<sup>5</sup>

The preceding courses, those of 1902, had created two cycles, each treating general history as a whole. The first cycle was given in the first four years of the secondary school (*Sixième* to *Troisième*), and the second in the last three years (*Seconde*, *Première*, *Philosophie*, or *Mathématiques*).

It did not seem to be superfluous to draw the attention of the pupils twice, at different age levels, to important questions, but the curriculum became, as a result, regrettably overcrowded. At the very beginning of secondary studies the sixth class (*Classe de Sixième*) had to become acquainted with oriental, Greek, and Roman civilization in one year. The second class (*Classe de Seconde*), at the beginning of the advanced cycle, had first to review the history of the Middle Ages from the tenth to the fifteenth century, and then study in detail a vast period which went up to 1715, including the Renaissance, the Reformation, and the century of Louis XIV. The teachers were forced to speed up their instruction; the children did not have time to digest the facts and ideas presented to them in feverish haste, and in spite of frantic efforts, the knowledge they acquired was too often transitory and superficial.

Taking everything into account, the disadvantages of the system of cycles outweighed the advantages. It seemed wise to give it up. Now the professors have seven years in which to cover the evolution of humanity "from the age of the cave man to the century of aviation." The program for each year, which is less extensive and diversified, can be studied as a whole, with the necessary developments; the student is given all necessary explanations; he has time enough to consider and to learn gradually to understand problems which are so complex and varied that they bewilder young brains.

Therefore, the course of study adopted in 1925 divided the material of history in a new way. However, neither the content nor the spirit was greatly changed.

It is still understood that the teacher of history "is, more than anyone else, an agent of national education," who is charged especially with "the task of creating a citizen who is informed of the duties and responsibilities which await him in society."<sup>6</sup> Therefore, knowledge of the history of France is rightly considered fundamental. However, this knowledge, if it is to be well-founded, implies a study of general history, to which it is closely attached. According to the ministerial instructions: "It is inconceivable that a professor of history would neglect to foster national feeling. This is a great and delicate task. More than anything else, it is necessary to strengthen the natural love for one's native country, give a rational basis to this instinct, and enlighten it; but in France, under pain of losing our national character, we must neither forget the man in the citizen, nor lessen the place of humanity for the apparent profit

of our country. Therefore, the plan of study of 1925, like the preceding one, places the history of France in a framework of universal history. No country has been influenced by outside forces more than France, for France is composed of a mixture of races, and at its very beginning it received the diverse cultures of Rome and Germany. On the other hand, no country has had more influence on the world than our own. We have never been, we never will be, isolationists. It is part of our creed as Frenchmen to love and serve humanity. Knowledge of general history is indispensable to us.

"Instruction in history is expected to give the pupil an exact idea of successive civilizations and the progress made during the centuries, as well as thorough acquaintance with the formation and development of France; to show him the influence of our country on the world, and of the world on our country; to compare France with foreign countries in order to enlighten his judgments on his own people; to teach him to give all people the justice which is due them; to widen the horizon of his mind; and, finally, to leave him a clear notion of his duties as a Frenchman, and as a man, as well as knowledge of the state of his country and the world."<sup>7</sup>

The courses are arranged in strict conformity with these statements of principle. There is no need to analyze them in detail. A few examples will clearly show how the desire to teach the history of our country is reconciled without difficulty with impartial study of the activity of other peoples.

During two whole years, during the sixth and fifth years (*Classes de Sixième* and *Cinquième*), the students learn how to find in the ancient oriental and Mediterranean civilization some of the most authentic sources of European civilization. In the fourth class (*Classe de Quatrième*) they take up the Middle Ages. Here again an effort is made to widen their intellectual horizon, rather than to overload their memories with an unassimilated mass of confused ideas. The official Instructions stress the necessity of presenting only a selected group of events and ideas. "The teacher should ask himself continually what facts are significant in the intellectual and civic culture of the modern man, or are necessary to understand the past; all others should be omitted." Let us take, for example, the history of France and England after the Norman conquest. It is treated in a synchronous way. "The two countries were closely bound together in the Middle Ages, although they were enemies, and the similarities as well as the great differences in their evolution are extremely instructive and suggestive, as well as being easy to grasp. Capetian monarchy compared to the Anglo-Norman kingship; the contrast between the two societies, the rapidity of political progress which gives England a lead of almost a century over France, and in spite of this the common origins, mutual influences, and borrowings, similarities in central institutions (the curia regis) and assemblies (Estates General of Philip the Fair and Parliament of Edward I), finally the tragic conflicts between the two kingdoms, the creation of a great English empire in France in the

twelfth century, and its rapid decline as the Capetians rise—all this history should be presented as a whole, if it is to be well understood and if it is to strike the imagination and the mind of the pupils."<sup>8</sup>

The same broadly comprehensive spirit is found in all history courses in secondary schools. In connection with the course for the second class (*Classe de Seconde*), which includes the history of France and Europe from 1610 to 1789, the instructions of 1925 repeat those of 1890; care must be taken "not to hide the history of Europe in the shadow of our own, and not to subordinate independent forces such as the United Provinces and the King of Sweden; proper value must be given to each member of the European family"; separate and distinct lessons must be reserved for the development of each of the principal states in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, especially Prussia.

Naturally, this method is even more necessary in the last two years of the secondary school cycle. Contemporary history is marked by a tremendous widening of horizons. World politics takes the place of European politics. Problems become more numerous and press upon one another. The awakening of German, Italian, and Slavic nationalities, the colonial expansion of the great powers, the strengthening and reorganization of the British Empire, the rise of Japan, the rapid growth of the United States, all these are important questions which are emphatically called to the attention of the students in the courses of the last two years.

To sum up, the study of universal history encompasses the study of national history, completes it, and enlightens it. Both are studied without prejudice, in a spirit of intelligent sympathy, in an attempt to determine fairly the contribution of each member of the human family in the common work of civilization.

When it is handled in this way, instruction in history becomes an instrument of culture, the efficiency of which is certain. It helps to form minds which will be open and reflective; it gives young people a sense of reality, awakens their critical spirit, introduces them to the methods which lead to truth, or which allow them to approach the truth.

Specially trained teachers supervise this delicate training. History teachers in the *collèges* have a diploma which requires at least two years of higher studies. The teachers in the *lycées* have the rank of *Agrégé*, or at least have prepared carefully for the very difficult examination by which this rank is gained. They have all attended university courses; they have learned there the conditions and the laws of scientific research; they have had practice in discussing the divergent testimony of writers and documents, in making comparisons, and in presenting, with complete fairness, the results of their research. In short, they have learned the habits of accuracy, of intellectual honesty, of impartiality, and they make every effort to communicate these habits to their pupils.

The plan of study of 1925 has given a new sort of opportunity for this sort of training, by creating

regular periods for "practical exercises." One hour a week is spent this way in the first three classes, and a half hour a week in the next three. [Some of these periods are devoted to geographical work.] These classes are obligatory for pupils taking the modern course (beginning with the *Classe de Sixième*), and are optional from the fourth class on for pupils of the classical section. This new type of instruction has had real success. "Its essential characteristics are variety and flexibility. For the youngest pupils, the professor may spend the allotted time in completing, explaining, or making more vivid the teaching given in class, by means of lantern slides and readings; sometimes the hour may be added to the period in modern language in order to make the pupils better acquainted with the characteristic aspects of Germany, Great Britain; sometimes the time may be spent in exercises, which up to this time have had no place in secondary school work, such as the study of historical texts and local history, or visits to monuments and to museums, or geographical excursions; and, in the last year, the pupils may be given instruction of a philosophical nature, such as a consideration of the essential characteristics of Greek and Roman civilization."

No detailed program has been drawn up, and only very general suggestions are given, so that the professor is left "a maximum of liberty and the widest possible opportunity for initiative." He may even, if he sees fit, let his pupils benefit from his own researches. Whatever means are employed, the aim remains the same, "to awaken the spirit of curiosity, to develop the faculties of imagination, observation, and judgment."

To sum up, the plan of study of 1925 has not changed the traditional content of historical studies in French secondary schools. Suppressing the system of cycles has made it possible to distribute the material over a longer period. An attempt has been made to increase the value of historical studies by the introduction of practical exercises. However, the essential object of the teaching of history still tends to be the same as the object of all secondary instruction: to form men worthy of the name, men to whom nothing human is strange.

<sup>1</sup> The Higher Council of Public Instruction (*Conseil supérieur*) assists the Minister of Public Instruction in his task. The Council deals with such matters as courses of study and programs, examinations and conferring of degrees, disciplinary and administrative rulings.—EORRON

<sup>2</sup> Rey, *Leçons de Philosophie*, T. XI, pp. 422-423, 6th ed., Paris, 1926.

<sup>3</sup> "How can you resign yourself to ignorance of France," said Michelet, "France surrounds you and presses in on you from all sides...." Michelet, *Le Peuple*, Paris, s. d., p. 334.

<sup>4</sup> Excerpt from *La Paix par le Droit*, February, 1925, p. 62.

<sup>5</sup> All the official texts are given in "*Enseignement Secondaire, Horaires, Programmes, et Instructions*," published in 1925 by the Librairie Armand Colin. Quotations given further on are taken from this volume.

<sup>6</sup> Horaires, programmes at instruction, p. 194.

<sup>7</sup> Horaires, p. 178.

<sup>8</sup> Horaires, p. 197.



# Why I Use Pictures in Teaching History

BY CHARLOTTE W. EASTMAN, IOWA CITY, IOWA

You ask me, "Why do I use pictures with my teaching of history?" I will tell you.

It is because I have found that I can add interest, color, depth of impression, and permanency of possession to any event or situation or condition that I wish to impress on my class by the addition of visual presentation to my usual method. For no matter how gifted the user of word pictures may be, there remains a certain element that can be shown better by the brush or pencil and the imagination of the artist.

Years ago, when I began teaching history in a high school, where rumors of visual education were just beginning to wash in, I started to use pictures with my work. The school possessed no lantern, and no one offered us a set of slides arranged to use with our work if we had owned a lantern. But in working with my class I tried using a portrait of Gladstone to assist me in getting over to the students an idea of the power of the man and of his times.

It was only a large print that I had for use, but I hung it before my class and referred to it often. The reaction of the class was so distinct and so satisfactory that I continued to use pictures in my teaching, as I could find them.

When I went to teach in a school that furnished a lantern, I needed no urging to make use of it. And when I had the opportunity to use a set of pictures, all bearing on the same subject, a new era opened in my teaching. I made my plans to use the set on Queen Elizabeth. We were ready in the class to review the period of her time when the set of slides came to us.

To use them we were obliged to move the class to the large room, and to darken it. I had already seen the slides, so I knew how I intended to use them. The class had studied the history of the period with considerable interest, and I knew that they should be ready to tell something of every one of the pictures given in the set. I proposed to use the class period to bring out the knowledge of the class. Before the recitation was over I learned a very important thing myself. It was this—that to collect and express the facts that are suggested to the student's mind by the picture and that have a background in his mind, the stimulus of questions is needed. With more practice the student learned to do this much more satisfactorily, but with these first pictures that he was asked to interpret he hesitated and stumbled until I asked him the questions that brought out his knowledge.

In my use of pictures heretofore, I myself had furnished the ideas which I wanted emphasized; now that the process was reversed I met a very different response.

I selected for my first picture the portrait of King Henry VIII. The artist who painted this portrait presented him in a manner that would bring out the picturesque qualities of the old scamp; it was full of suggestions of the life and character of the man. I hoped that Clifford, one of my brightest students, would be able to see these things in the picture. He had always shown an unusual discernment in selecting the important from the unimportant qualities in any situation. Clifford knew that Henry was the father of Elizabeth, and he knew of his bluebeard history, but of his religious activity and its immense influence on many issues of the period he spoke hesitatingly. The picture needed questions to bring out the importance of the man and his powerful influence in the development of the period. But when questions were asked and volunteer answers were given, the class as a whole made a complete picture of his influence that pleased me very much, and which they cannot easily forget.

It was a temptation to spend all the hour on that picture, and I realized that if I could have shown it earlier in the study I could have made many deeper impressions.

The radio has demonstrated to its listeners the lameness of the human mind in selecting the vital elements in a picture and transferring them in a mental picture by means of words. The listeners know too well that the announcers who can do this successfully are very rare. The students could not say in words what they saw in the picture. Much, very much of the power of a picture remains untold, even with the assistance of questions. Some of my most interesting moments before my class are inspired by the response I had seen in the faces of my class.

Moreover, there were times when I wanted only two or three pictures in an hour, and it was not wise to move the class to the lantern for them. Consequently, the pictures were not used until I was ready for a review of a period. I realized that my class was losing much by this method. Then I learned of the powers of the daylight lantern, and I determined to have one. Since it came, my process is quite different. I returned to the days when I owned and used my individual pictures. The French Revolution has appealed strongly to the artist, and we had individual pictures that presented the dramatic element as the word pictures could not. Also, the life of Luther has its dramatic moments that were greatly emphasized by the use of pictures, and made a study of his life far more interesting than I had ever succeeded in making it without the pictures. I look forward to the time when the libraries will have given up more of their pictorial treasures, and we can have their help in revealing new thoughts and in

emphasizing old ones, in all the history that I have to teach. Godspeed to anyone who is working on that accomplishment.

When the pictures of events in the life of Lady Jane Gray and Mary Queen of Scots were shown, the influence of pompous Henry VIII was again brought into the foreground. While the ship of Sir John Hawkins and the picture of the Spanish Armada and of Elizabeth knighting Drake opened up a wholly different element of dramatic interest. The pictures of Shakespeare, in his interesting activity in the life of his sovereign and in the life of the court, brought out a lot of interesting discussion of the time.

During the process of looking at the picture there is a mental reception that cannot easily be repeated in words. The exercise in the use of the English language, while attempting to give a verbal description of the picture, is very valuable.

I understood then in the use of my first set of slides that in making a set there was an effort to present every phase of the subject in some pictorial form that would open that view for discussion. In this manner the still picture covers a very different field from the movie, and a set of pictures has a much greater value than merely an occasional picture. The many phases of the times were so largely presented that it made a picture of the whole era.

When the hour was spent there still remained so many unasked questions in the minds of the class and the interest was so keen that there was a general request to have the program repeated. But, as all the time had been consumed that could be legitimately used on that period, I did not think it wise to give more of the class time to it, yet I felt that it was a loss of good interest to refuse the request. At this juncture I discovered that I was expected to furnish a program for the assembly period, and I decided to allow my class to give "Elizabeth and Her Time" for the benefit of the school. They took hold of the idea with enthusiasm, and each student selected a picture for his subject. Two minutes or less was the time allowed for each picture. But that program was another story. Sufficient to say that it was repeated for the Parent-Teacher Association, to the pleasure and profit of many. Out of this experience grew my

own possession of a daylight lantern for use in my classroom. It is now my treasured possession, and mine until death do us part, or I quit teaching history. I keep it on my desk and use it as I need it. It is my own personal property, and always at hand and always usable. My screen is a section of the wall or the back of a map. With the distance of fifteen or twenty feet I can produce a picture the size desirable for my class. If I could not own my own lantern, I might be satisfied to share one with the other members of my department, or even with the other teachers of the school, but the joy I take in the personal possession of my lantern gives me adequate return for the expense.

Now, when I come to an absorbing section of history, I arrange my visual work with as much care as I give to the study of the literary part. The arrangement and the presentation of my slides takes consideration as careful as that for the presentation of the characters or the events or the spirit or any other vital part of the period, and I would thank no one for arranging these notes for me. Any teacher who is capable of teaching history in a high school can arrange his own notes better than they can be arranged by anyone else.

When I used to take my class into the darkened auditorium and show them pictures on the screen of the events of importance in a period, it was a wonderful stimulus to the interest of the class, but it had its drawbacks. I found that I missed greatly the inspiration of the faces of my students. I never imagined that these faces meant so much to me in giving color and interest and force to my discussions of events in history. Talking to my class in the dark, I found that I was stereotyped and pedantic in my remarks. Almost invariably I renewed my descriptions when we had the sunlight shining on our faces. I always remembered then some dramatic features of the time that I had overlooked. In fact, one student spoke of this after-talk as the "warmed-up left-overs" and seemed to enjoy it more than he did the regular feast.

I realized then why unconsciously I hesitated to move my class into the darkened auditorium for a recitation. It was because I felt that a recitation is more than a giving by the teacher.

## The Teaching of Ancient History in Schools

BY T. A. TULLER, FRIENDS' SCHOOL, BALTIMORE, MD.

The writer realizes that his readers must bear pain like a philosopher in perusing a paper such as this one of necessity must be. Now, just as Julian made one last effort to restore a benighted faith and to lure the exiled gods to their ancient habitations so shall he endeavor to recall to the minds of his non-pagan hearers a few facts and near-facts about the teaching of a subject largely pagan, with the hope

that each one may harbor a few little idols with impunity.

The writer cannot hope to cover this broad subject adequately. He cannot even touch upon the many methods that have been used with varying degrees of success in the past, or are being used now. The most that he can do is to set up a supposed case and proceed with a method to meet it. He must assume at

the outset that those completing the course in Ancient history with a fairly high rating should be able to pass entrance examinations to college. In other words, ancient history is here conceived as a five period per week subject, and on a par with Latin, or algebra for credit received. Third or fourth year high school pupils have elected the subject. It is further assumed that the class is composed of pupils with an Intelligence Quotient somewhat above that of the moron. The course is not exactly a motor trip through the ancient countries, and success is not guaranteed in advance.

The classroom is any fair sized room provided with a set of large wall maps, blackboard outline maps, a lantern for slide and reflectoscope work, a bookcase large enough for copies of important reference works, source books, and entire translations of important ancient authors. The historical fiction usually approved may be in the main library of the school. Charts, graphs, and pictures are in full view when needed. Each pupil is provided with at least one good textbook on ancient history. Several copies of each of the other good texts in the field are found in the classroom, or on the shelves of the library.

Our hypothetical teacher has the same aims as the average experienced teacher, who has gleaned the grain from the ancient field and attempted to winnow the chaff. He has read many magazine articles bearing on the subject, both the wise and otherwise, and splendid volumes on the teaching of history. He has studied his subject in college and university, and has attempted to adjust his knowledge, in accordance with the rules and regulations of the educational experts of the day, to the intellectual level of the pupils before him.

The course is to cover the Oriental Nations, Greece, and Rome to 800 A. D. Teaching units and sub-units have been arranged, and there is still further subdivision wherever it is necessary for class purposes. The units follow, for the most part, the plan of the "General Survey of the Field of Ancient History to 800 A. D.," as worked out by the New England History Teachers' Association. This is a convenient working basis, for it will be remembered that each unit has a time allowance on a percentage basis of the entire number of days in the school year, or the time allowed for the course. To be more specific, the Oriental Nations are allotted 8 per cent. of the entire time. Now, if there are 32 weeks<sup>1</sup> in the school year, or 150 days (exclusive of holidays and examinations), approximately 12 days may be allowed for this unit. The sub-units may also be divided on a percentage basis in so far as this is practical. Each pupil has a copy of the above outline.

With the general scheme in mind, our teacher's next consideration is that of the assimilative material bearing on these units, and sub-units. After a survey of the course to the assembled class on the first day of school, a test is given on the material of the first unit about to be taught. Whenever it is possible the test given is a fair equivalent of the one to be given at

the expiration of the teaching period for the unit. This affords a way of checking the progress of each pupil. If it is not done there is no possible way of knowing, with any degree of certainty, what Gaius or Gaia has gained from the teaching. It also reveals what teaching is needed.

As already noted, the unit, Oriental Nations, is too large to be studied as a whole without subdivision. The following sub-units are taken up in order: Egypt to about 525 B. C.; the Tigris-Euphrates Valley to 538 B. C.; the Phoenicians; the Hebrews; Media and Persia to the Contact with Greece; Summary and Review. After these have been studied the test promised above is given, and the deductions made.

The method of studying the above sub-divisions is important. Egypt must be introduced to the pupil in as interesting a way as possible, and the general connection with the other elements of the unit shown. The introduction may take the form of some interesting stories told by Herodotus about the strange country he visited, a reflectoscope or slide talk on mummies, or perhaps on recent excavations, just enough here to create an appetite for more. First going over the material chronologically to gain a general knowledge of it, and to get the correct idea of time is helpful. The necessary detail is learned through writing the answers to such challenges as: How were food and clothing provided for the millions of Egyptians?; the pyramids—Why were they built? What is the architectural plan? The labor situation? How was the work done? Under what form of government could such conditions exist? etc.; down the Nile on a pleasure trip, 2000 B. C.; Egyptian Industry; Education; what proof have we that Rameses II was once ruling in Egypt, and that he and others constructed great temples, and public buildings? Such problems are used as far as time permits.

On such subjects as these, bearing on the sub-units, our teacher has a splendid opportunity to aid individuals, as occasion permits, on a diagram, graph, a description, a cartoon, a composition, a map. Here, too, the lantern is utilized by pupils (who have been previously trained by the teacher) for talks on various phases of Egyptian life. Post cards obtained from the Metropolitan Museum, the Louve, the British Museum, and from Egypt are on hand for the purpose. Pupils enter into work of this nature with a zest that is encouraging.

Each of the sub-units is studied in a manner somewhat similar in general method to that of Egypt. Then comes a review, or cementing process of the five or six sub-units into the definite unit, the Oriental Nations. At first the events, persons, important dates, historical terms, map locations, etc., are reviewed for spelling and definite connection with the work of the unit. Then short, pithy descriptions are written on such subjects as: Lydian and Persian Coins; Inscriptions found in the Oriental Countries; the Great Pyramid; the Babylonian Captivity. On subsequent days written answers to such problems as



the following are required: the Housing Problem in Egypt and Babylonia; how the Persians governed their vast Empire; the Practice of Law among the Babylonians and Hebrews; a Possible Diary of Rameses II; the Sky-scrappers of Babylon; Assyrian Nineveh; Religious Differences among the Oriental Nations.

Short descriptions, problem-answers, and tabulations are read in class and criticized by class and teacher. Corrections are made by the pupil in pencil to distinguish from the original in ink. In all of the reviews an attempt is made to have pupils use different textbooks from the ones used in the original study with the hope that in this way they will learn the subject rather than the author's words. After this scheme of review and over-review of the same subject-matter a definite check is made in the form of a test, as already mentioned, of a similar nature to the one given at the beginning of the study of the unit. From this test the teacher knows, by comparison with the first one, what each pupil's progress has been.

Just as the elements are cemented into the sub-unit, and the sub-units into the unit, so must the units in turn be combined into larger divisions of the whole course. It has been surmised that pupils have kept notebooks of the work done during unit-reviews. These are now a valuable source of information to be used in connection with a review of the units arranged in outline form for semester examination purposes. The problems here cover a larger field. Specimens are as follows: the Influence of the Peloponnesian League upon the Affairs of the whole Greece; "Westward the Course of Empire takes its Way"; States Rights in Greece; Life in Athens contrasted with Life in Sparta; the Government of Athens at the time of (a) Draco, (b) Solon, (c) Clisthenes, (d) Pericles; the Greek Wars to maintain Independence; the Civil (or City-State) Wars of Greece; Trade, Manufactures, and Banking; Gods, Oracles and Festivals; Greek Public Buildings; the Literature of Greece; the Rich and Poor of Greece and the Orient; Colonization and Geographical Knowledge. Biographical sketches of important men are a part of the review. Such characters as Cyrus the Great, Themistocles, Pericles, Epaminondas, Miltiades, Croesus, and Alexander the Great are written up for the notebook. Maps, selected for their especial value, are done from memory.

The work done before the examination, i. e., the daily work, counts two-thirds of the semester average, and the examination one-third. It should be stated here that the semester examination is not necessarily similar to the tests on the material of one unit, and, of course, it is much longer. This two to three hour examination is a fair check on the ability of the pupil to pass college entrance examinations, in so far as the material of the first semester is concerned.

Our teacher does not have a name for the plan advocated. He accepts the idea that no two pupils

are alike, and that the difference is in the number of talents as well as in the type of talents. He is trying to educate, in so far as his subject is concerned, the individual within the group. He attempts to challenge the interest, or interests, of each pupil and to provide an opportunity for the exercise of the one, five, or ten talents in an environment set up by the school organization. Pupils do not necessarily do the same amount of work. Those who expect to go to college must show that they are ready for advanced study by the quality and the quantity of the work done as they proceed from unit to unit. Pupils are not excused from class to do other work, and a good deal of home preparation is usually found necessary.

The question arises, "Is it possible to require all of this work and still have pupils elect the course?" The answer is that the proper motivation will secure the average sized class. In explaining the general plan of the course, it was not possible to go into the subject of motivation except incidentally. At this point it can be done by taking samples from the whole field.

During the study of Greek Literature the three great tragedians, Aeschylus, Sophocles, and Euripides may be grouped chronologically around the battles of Marathon and Salamis. Aeschylus was thirty-five years old in 490 B. C. (the date for the battle of Marathon), Sophocles was six, and Euripides was not born until the day of the battle of Salamis, ten years later. Produce a picture of the figure of Sophocles and ask the class whether the Athenians were correct in choosing him, for his beauty, to lead the choir of boys at the celebration of an anniversary at Salamis. Tell the class the underlying story in the play of Aeschylus, the "Seven against Thebes," and get them interested not only in Oedipus, Polynices, Eteocles, and Antigone, but in the whole group of plays of Aeschylus, and incidentally in the history of Thebes. This interest may carry to the reading of the Antigone, the Oedipus Tyrannus, and the Oedipus Colonus of Sophocles. The story of how the noble queen Alcestis died as a substitute for her husband, Admetus, and how Heracles brought her back from the world of the shades, will usually arouse the desired interest in Euripides.

Aristophanes commands an audience at once from the very names of his comedies. In the *Knights* he makes a ferocious onslaught upon Cleon. The *Clouds* is an attack upon the sophists, under the person of Socrates. The *Wasps* ridicules the Athenian law-business. The *Birds* represents a great city, by name Cloudcuckootown, as built in the air, dominating gods and men. More need not be said to show how this material may be used as an introduction to discussions of politics, philosophy, and if we name the *Frogs*, on the relative merits of Aeschylus and Euripides. In some of his other comedies we have a satire on the contemporary feminist theories such as we find in Plato's *Republic*.

Socrates, Plato, and Aristotle offer a great field for the teacher in bringing the pupil to an interest in Philosophy. The deeper problems need not be discussed. Herodotus, Thucydides, and Xenophon have made history that pupils delight in, when the teacher has presented the choice excerpts.

In teaching the Trojan War, Homer comes in at every step. Achilles, Priam, Hecuba, Andromache, Hector, Odysseus, Penelope, and the other characters become as familiar and as real to the average pupil as many contemporaneous events and characters. The Girls' School at Mytilene, where music and poetry were taught, with Sappho at its head, has never failed to make its appeal. Pindar has become the favorite of many a boy with athletic aspirations. Demosthenes is loved even if he is the despair of the one or two class orators.

The uses for the lantern are numerous when we come to the field of art. There are possibilities for describing the Parthenon from slides (colored, if possible) in such a way as to produce a lasting love for the beautiful in architecture, and sculpture. There may also be shown likenesses of the gods and goddesses, statues of the heroes of the time, gems of rare workmanship, and pottery the pride of a race. (Slides of the whole Acropolis are important, and those of Olympia and Olynthus, when available.)

If the class, or a sufficient number of the members of the class, are interested in dramatics, why not have a Meeting of the Ecclesia? If the class feels the need of exercise, go with them to the Wrestling Schools, Gymnasia, then walk over to the east of town to the Lyceum where it will be easy to get an argument with Aristotle, or his pupils. Plato will welcome the group at the Academy, and all will enjoy the olive trees and the shade of the more graceful plane trees. On the way at some fountain you may meet a noble Poseidon with his trident, or the ocean ear of Amphitrite riding on the waves. If your party runs out of money, look for some Athenian owls.

What has been said on the course so far has been wholly about the Orient and Greece, but many are the opportunities for making the study of Rome worth while. The general plan for the second semester is similar to that of the first. Perhaps it will be enough to point out a few of the parts that aid in securing the interest of the children. Of the early period the following are always counted on to keep awake the sleepiest members: Aeneas of Troy, Carthage, and Italy; Romulus and the Founding of Rome; how the

Roman Bachelors got their Wives; the Combat between the Horatii and the Curiatii; the Exploit of Horatius Cocles; Brutus and the overthrow of the Kingdom. Time permits the mere mention of: the Plebeian Struggle for Rights and Privileges; the Conquest and Organization of Italy; the Roman World in 146 B. C.; the entangling alliances of Jupiter, Venus, Mars, and others; the Triumvirates; the Rule of Augustus; the Good Emperors; Diocletian and Constantine; and the Causes for Decline. The very names of Cincinnatus, Flamininus, Hannibal, Quintus Fabius Maximus, the Scipios, Perseus, Regulus, Viriathus, Aemilius Paulus, the Gracchi, Sulla, and Marius suggest to this audience a thousand ways of holding to the task even the deaf and dumb. If this is so, what can be said for Caesar, Pompey, Antony, Cato?

The writers have a living interest for thinking people, but do they for children of high school age? No, if detailed book reports must be made, they are not always popular. Try: the letters of Cicero (a well-chosen selection), his Essay on Friendship, or some of his Orations; the Aeneid of Vergil, his Georgics, and Bucolics; enough of Horace to make his acquaintance; the Deucalion and Pyrrha, Phaeton, Golden Fleece, Atalanta's Race, Philemon and Baucis, Daedalus and Icarus, and other selections from the Metamorphoses of Ovid; Selections from the 35 books of Livy that we possess; some of Pliny's Letters; Tacitus for his descriptions of Germany and Britain, and others as time permits. If the pupils are not interested the fault is not with their stars.

The lantern is used here as in the Greek period. Views of the Forum, the Seven Hills, the Temples, Basilicas, Private Houses, Triumphal Arches, the Circus Maximus; views of Pompeii, Ostia, Pisidian Antioch; household furniture, statues, writing material, etc., afford all the opportunity desired for talks by pupils and teacher.

The half cannot be told. Truly Cicero was right: "These studies are the food of youth, the charm of old age, in prosperity an ornament, in adversity a refuge and consolation: a delight at home and no hindrance in public life: they are our comrades of the night, in foreign lands, in country retreats."

With tears in our eyes we must leave all this to barbarians who "came down like a wolf on the fold" in what then seemed to be a permanent wave.

<sup>1</sup> On a 36-week year, two weeks' review for each semester is allowed.

## The Future's Unwritten But Recorded History

BY ALMON R. WRIGHT, STATE UNIVERSITY, MISSOULA, MONT.

Within recent years the American public has found the movie a source of increasing delight. So popular has it become, indeed, that one may now take moving pictures of the family and project them on a screen in the home. By such means are the future

generations to have biographical sketches more life-like than has ever been produced. The advent of the sound motion picture, however, is transforming the movie into the talkie. No longer is the public satisfied to see its favorites of the screen, but demands to

hear them speak and interpret their actions. No great stretch of the imagination is necessary to predict the adaptation of the sound film to the demands of the family circle, though many years of experiment may be required to bring such a mechanical instrument within the reach of the man of average means. Our grandchildren may restore the years of the past, may recover the scenes of their youth. They may place themselves within the walls of the paternal home to see again the busy life of the grandparents, to hear again their clear, distinct voices in conversation. This may be the future's unwritten but recorded biography of us. Perhaps we may feel a little startled at such an earthly immortality, but this is no fanciful dream. For years the phonograph record has reproduced the voices of the dead. The sound motion pictures of the present will doubtless outlive some of the actors who participate in them. This very day the talkie may bring a sorrowing relative into the intimate presence of a departed one, such that the dead may seem to have risen, moving and speaking as in life.

On the other hand, the potential uses of the sound film for instruction present no affront to such sensibilities. Some educators object to moving or stationary pictures in the classroom for meritorious reasons; yet the formidable obstacles confronting the general adoption of the projector are the failure of teachers to realize its possibilities and the lack of financial means for installing it. Man seems to find a speedy way of adapting the latest mechanical inventions to the purposes of amusement, but the public fails to demand for the use of instruction that which it requires for its leisure hours. The movie has long been a source primarily of entertainment, but to this day, few classrooms are equipped with it. Even the projectors of stationary pictures are not frequently employed in our colleges and secondary schools. Though the adaptation of the movie and the talkie to the uses of the teacher may be a slow process, yet these mechanical instruments are the key to a more vivid and concrete mode of presentation.

Let us confine our attention to the possible uses of the sound film in teaching history and political science. At the outset, a great limitation appears. Science cannot reproduce for us the movement and voice of great historical figures of the past. It is hardly possible that we shall ever see the figure or hear the voice of Lincoln speaking the Gettysburg Address. The stirring, clamorous scenes of the French Revolution cannot be recorded on a sound motion film. May the talkie, then, be of use only for the present and future historical events? The answer is that we may hear and see on the screen our present-day historians as they interpret the past to their classes. The student of the future may associate with his fellows of all parts of the country. In a single day, he may find himself within the class-

room walls of colleges in various parts of the country, enrolled as a "listener" to a famous historian here, to another there, all through the agency of the sound movie. Our children may partake of the atmosphere of a class conducted five, ten, or twenty years before their time. They may feel themselves to be fellow-students of those on the screen, hearing their questions, discussions, and explanations. The radio provides some of these advantages. We may listen to the speeches of leading men, the lectures of experts as well as the music of great orchestras. But though the radio and television may place the listener face to face with the speaker, they lack the element of permanence. It is conceivable that the student may attend an "eight o'clock" radio lecture, but once the "eight o'clock" is over it cannot be resurrected for further use. The talkie, on the other hand, may be employed to preserve for years to come the lectures and discussions of great scholars.

Although a record of the past by the sound film is not possible, current and future history may be handed on to posterity by this new instrument. Today, the teacher of diplomatic history refers his students to more or less scattered works and to collections of treaties and state papers. Tomorrow, the instructor may invite his students to enter the scenes of the international conference table. What an impression they would receive if, with their own eyes and ears, they observed the participants and listened to their eloquent pleas and subtle arguments! If we are permitted to profit by the principle of "open covenants openly arrived at," these future students may have all the advantages of an observer, if not a participant in the tasks of the diplomat. The notable addresses of recent years on disarmament may be read by the future student with a skeptical bias, but were he to see and hear the impassioned appeals of a MacDonald, he would not doubt the strong note of sincerity. Again, if man fails to keep in his heart the lessons of war, and if military history is to have a place of importance, no instrument could better record the nature of warfare and impress its awfulness upon the generations of the future than the sound motion picture.

The sound film may teach more accurately and vividly than books that portion of history which today is receiving greater attention than ever before, the lives of the common man and woman. The urban bred student might catch a more intimate glimpse and a more lasting appreciation of the typical farmer, his hard labor and inevitable chores, his home and the necessary equipment of his household. Likewise the daily tasks of the factory worker, the indispensable articles of his home life, the joys of his leisure hours, all might be the subject of the film. For the sound movie could as well describe the plodding tractor or the ceaseless activity and interminable roar of a Ford assembling plant as the clear eloquent



voice of an orator. If the student were to consider a cross-section of society cut from another angle, he might better understand and appreciate the lives of common men and women as they differ from New England to California and from Minnesota to Mississippi. By the same facilities, he may gain an extensive and intimate acquaintance with foreign countries. The average student traveler tries to include in his itinerary the most interesting and historic places to visit, and thereby fails to receive a genuine appreciation of the masses of the people as they go about their daily occupations. The sound film may offer the student a very complete view of the lives of our foreign friends at a negligible cost in money and a considerable saving in time.

In turning to the field of political science, we may point out by a few suggestions the possibilities of the sound film in effecting a vivid presentation of facts of government. There may be serious objections to a minute recording of the activities of the President, or of a state governor or a city mayor; yet the complexities of those offices may be better comprehended by such a presentation. Students, no matter where they reside, may be ushered into the presence of the mayor of New York as he directs the manifold tasks of his office. A tour through the executive offices at Washington may, in the future, be available on short notice; visits to the different departments and bureaus, with experts or government secretaries as guides, may be possible. The contrasts and similarities of procedure in the executive agencies of France, England, Germany, Russia, etc., may be clearly and pictorially described in the course of an hour.

Again the student of governments, seated in his classroom, may visit the courts of all types from the local police court to the Supreme Court of the United States. Nothing could give a better idea of the procedure of our judicial system than a personal visit through the sound movie. The student, moreover, may gain a personal acquaintance with the leading minds in the profession. It is quite possible that the sound film may stimulate a new respect for law and its enforcement, and arouse a new interest in legal and judicial reforms.

Were the talkie applied to Congress, there might be vigorous objection, but its usefulness in the field is obvious. Students with a textbook knowledge of the procedure of the Senate and House of Representatives often find themselves quite bewildered when they make their first direct observations. In their minds' eye they possess a picture of Congress, its members quiet and reserved. The sound film may put life, aggressiveness and the sound of voices into that picture, and thereby prevent the mistaken impression which elementary textbooks frequently convey. As the student may gain a more accurate idea of legislative procedure, so the Representatives and Senators may benefit by closer contact with their constituents.

In the face of these possibilities, let us venture to say probabilities, what changes may we expect in present-day methods and results? Are we to see the

textbook and reference reading discarded? What will the student benefit and what will become of the instructor? The answers to these problems may seem obvious, for certainly the student of the future will have great need for reading material. The textbook for a broad subject of history or government is often little more than an outline to be completed by references to more specialized works. The sound movie may supply a vast amount of detail which could not be compressed into the limits of a text, but its primary advantage will be to enlighten the student on what he has read or is about to read, to make it possible for him to retain an accurate picture of the subject in his memory.

The sound film may become an extraordinarily effective instrument in arousing the student's interest in things historical and political. The tremendous patronage of the talkies and movies indicates that men and women, young and old, are peculiarly fascinated by them. With the student's interest stimulated by this means, the instruction is certain to be profitable. His powers of observation may be well trained if he be impressed by the fact that every part of the film has a purpose which must not escape him. A more trustworthy memory and a greater capacity for analysis would result from his strengthened powers of observation and concentration.

What of the poor instructor! Mr. Raymond S. Jewett, president of the Associated School Boards and Trustees of the State of New York, suggests that instructional expense may be reduced through radio programs broadcasted by the Education Department. That may conceivably be the result in highly centralized secondary school systems. But in the history or government classes of colleges or universities the need for instructors may continue to be as great as it now is. His duties may, however, undergo a transition. Just as the teacher selects the textbook which seems best suited to his needs, so in the future he may choose the sound movie prepared under the direction of a scholar whose point of view is most like his own. The instructor may not discharge the duty of explaining the material at hand, but still he may have the obligation of choosing that explanation from his library of sound films which seems best fitted to the age and intelligence of his students. It is improbable that the talkie will supplant entirely the instructor's lecture and discussion, for it is to be hoped that he will continue to add the results of his own experience and reflection to the voice and views of the screen. However life-like this new instrument may be, it will not possess the human intelligence necessary to answer the questions and conduct the discussions of the class.

The possibilities of the sound movie have been considered only in the sphere of two of the social sciences. That it may be employed with great profit in other subjects of instruction is obvious. We may venture to believe that the world of education is approaching a sweeping transition in teaching methods.

# Recent Happenings in the Social Studies

BY COMMITTEE ON CURRENT INFORMATION OF THE NATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE SOCIAL STUDIES

W. G. Kimmel, Chairman

Janet Black Wiechman, *A Survey of Equipment and Materials Used in Social Studies Departments of the Los Angeles Junior High Schools* (University of Southern California, 1930. Unpublished Master's Thesis), is a questionnaire study of the equipment and materials found in Los Angeles junior high schools, based on the returns from the Chairmen of 30 social studies departments and from 203 teachers. Data are presented in 34 tables. Findings, in part, are summarized here.

Social studies classrooms are not equipped for the use of laboratory procedures, since 90 per cent. are equipped with fixed desks of conventional type, 70 per cent. have 20 square feet or less of bulletin board space, the only maps common to 50 per cent. of the rooms are maps of the United States and the World, 15 per cent. of the teachers do not have a basic text for each pupil, the only items of equipment common to at least 50 per cent. of the rooms are desk outline maps, colored crayons, and an available motion-picture machine, and the only reference books common to all rooms are a dictionary and an atlas.

Facilities for the use of visual materials are inadequate, but 80 per cent. of the teachers make some use of materials from the visual education department, and two-thirds of the departments have definite plans for the co-operative use of visual materials.

The average number of books for the social studies available in the libraries is about 1,000 to 1,500 volumes, while the median percentage of these to the total number of volumes is about 25 to 30 per cent. There is little relation between the number of volumes available and the enrollment of pupils in the department in the different junior high schools. There is little uniformity in the volumes and magazines found in the libraries. Less than one-half of the departments have definitely scheduled library periods. Despite inadequate school library facilities, 60 per cent. of the teachers did not use materials from the city library.

Only 42 teachers planned excursions, and the most frequent difficulties mentioned as the reasons for not using excursions were lack of time, transportation, and responsibility for pupils on excursions. A majority of the teachers (146) have only social studies, and a majority have three to five preparations of lessons per day. A majority of the teachers use the same classroom for all classes, but only eight departments have their classrooms centralized in one part of the building. Ninety per cent. of the teachers have had a major or a minor in the social studies, which 63 per cent. have seven years or less experience in teaching.

Recommendations for the social studies classroom include: a room larger than the conventional classroom, equipped with tables—two pupils to each—and chairs, a bulletin board extending the full length of the rear of the room, a blackboard across the front and possibly one side of the room. Shelving should be placed below the blackboard in the front of the room, with sufficient cupboard space, a glass display case for valuable objects loaned for use, a filing cabinet, and equipment for projectors for the use of slides and motion-picture machines, and suitable maps. The social studies rooms should be centralized in one part of the school building, with small workrooms between every two classrooms.

There is a bibliography. Copies of the questionnaires and a composite book-list are appended.

Jetta Fausel Henderson, *Curricular Organization of the Social Studies in the Junior High School* (University of Southern California, 1930. Unpublished Master's Thesis), is a study of twenty-six courses of study used in cities of more than 20,000 inhabitants, published during or since 1924. Materials, including titles of courses, offerings for different

grades, excerpts from courses showing main divisions, are grouped in chapters dealing with the entire social studies program, history, geography, civics, and unified or fusion courses. Among the findings are: (1) there is no typical social studies program for junior high schools, inasmuch as there are twenty-one different programs represented in the twenty-six courses of study included in the study; (2) history is organized about topics or problems or a combination of both; (3) 30 per cent. of the courses in history for Grade VII begin with the study of European Background; (4) there is marked variation in the scope of materials included in the different courses, but there is considerable agreement on the content for particular periods; (5) all but one course include only United States history in Grade VIII, and in all but one course include materials down to the present time; (6) history in Grade IX includes Ancient, Medieval, or World history, usually as an elective course, with a tendency to include content beginning with prehistoric times and with a reasonably uniform content for each period; (7) eleven courses include United States geography and civics as a unified course, while in courses not unified geography is predominately a subject offered in Grade VII; (8) there is a greater agreement concerning the content for geography than for either history or civics; (9) eleven of the courses of study in geography are unified for Grades VII and VIII, and five for Grade IX; (10) types of courses in civics are Community, Economic, and Vocational civics, with Economic civics the least frequent; (11) Community civics is most commonly included in Grade IX; (12) eleven courses of study in all phases are unified courses; (13) there are three types of unified courses: (a) history and geography in Grades VII and VIII, with civics in Grade IX; (b) history, geography, and civics in all three grades, with particular units which stress each subject; (c) all subjects through all three grades, with a greater degree of fusion within units.

D. D. Droba, in "A Scale of Militarism-Pacifism," in the February issue of *Journal of Educational Psychology*, describes the method of equal appearing intervals used in the construction and perfecting of the scale, the assumptions involved in its use, the reliability of the completed scale of forty-four items. Students were asked to mark their responses to these statements representing different degrees of opinion. Certain data for 400 students, freshmen to graduate students, inclusive, are presented, and their scores were studied in relation to their education, scholarship, sex, and church affiliation. Education seems to develop pacifism, but there is only a low correlation between the scores on the scale and scholarship. Women seem more inclined toward pacifism than men, but men vary more in opinions than women. Students of Catholic, Lutheran, and Episcopalian affiliations appear to be the least inclined toward pacifism of all the groups. The scale is appended, and is published in modified form for commercial distribution by the University of Chicago Press.

Paul G. Chandler, *Some Methods of Teaching in Six Representative Teachers' Colleges of the United States* (Contributions to Education, No. 425, Teachers' College, Columbia University, 1930), includes a study of stenographic records and visitations of 114 classes, with comparative data in the form of answers to a 46-item questionnaire dealing with phases of methods by five groups of judges: arithmetic teachers, history teachers, psychology teachers, and technique experts. The findings are grouped under the following headings: "Analysis of Assignments"; "Methods of Assigning"; "Types of Recitations"; "Attitude of Teachers and Students"; and "Further Analysis of Class

Exercises." Certain recommendations are made. Stenographic reports of a class exercise in history and one in economics are appended.

"Geography Field Work With Junior High School Pupils," in the February issue of *Journal of Geography*, includes a description of activities developed by Edna E. Eisen, in the Steuben Junior High School, Milwaukee, Wisconsin. The club numbered about fifty pupils, and engaged in the following activities: (1) field trips to different parts of the city once each month; (2) the making of a land utilization of the city, which involved the checking of details throughout the city and the discussion of problems in connection with the work during regular meetings of the club; (3) club meetings held twice each month, involving the consideration of questions which related to other club activities. Details of all activities are described in detail.

Selma Abrams, in "The Intermediate Grade Geography Text and the Laboratory Method of Using It," in the same issue, states two objectives of instruction in geography at this level as the acquisition of a knowledge of geographic facts and principles and ability to use the textbook. Certain disadvantages of the textbook method are briefly outlined, and purposes of it in connection with the laboratory technique are stated as follows: (1) its place in "motivated reading"; (2) its use as a tool of learning in connection with the use of facts in solving problems, the interpretation of pictures, maps, statistics, and graphs.

In the same issue E. E. Lackey, Secretary of the National Council of Geography Teachers, contributes a report of The Worcester Meeting of the Council.

"Reference Material on India," a bibliography furnished by the British Library of Information, 551 Fifth Avenue, New York City, is also included in the February issue.

Charles C. Peters and John E. Altman contribute "A Critical Study of the Content of Standardized Tests in American History" in the February issue of *Journal of Educational Research*. Following a brief review of the earlier studies in the field, the authors present an analysis of 3,508 "references" in 23 standardized tests in American history. "Reference" is apparently intended to cover any item of some historical meaning as dissociated from general meaning. The data are presented in ten tables, and comparisons are made with data from earlier studies and reports, including those by Committee of Eight, Washburne, Beard and Bagley, Horn, Monroe-Herriott, Thornton, and Wooters. Among other findings, the references in the 23 tests are classified as follows: 67.3 per cent., political; 22.1 per cent., social or economic; and 10.4 per cent., military. Classification is recognized as "nearly always an artificial process," but none of the "definite rules of procedure" used in making the classification are presented. The references are also classified in terms of percentages which fall within eight periods in American history. Certain correlations between data for different investigations are low. The

comparative data on references of the study, Washburne's list, and the Monroe-Herriott data, as well as the frequency list of dates, should serve as useful check-lists for curriculum-makers. The materials assembled in the study will also be of interest to teachers in the selection of standardized tests, as well as to persons engaged in the construction of tests.

The January issue of *Social Studies Leaflet* (Southern California Social Science Association: Editor, Hettie A. Withey, Chaffey Union High School, Ontario, California) includes "Recent Progress in Social Studies Teaching," by Elmer Ellis. This article is a review of the recent pedagogical literature in the field as well as other pertinent materials. Howard L. Benedict contributes "The Indeterminate Assignment," in which five assignments intended for use in American History in Grade XI are presented. Louis Knott Koontz, with the assistance of members of the Department of History, University of California, at Los Angeles, contributes "Recent Noteworthy Books in English History." This list, annotated with excerpts from reviews of the volumes, is one of a series edited by Dr. Koontz, with the assistance of his colleagues, as a department of the magazine. A series of tests on the United States Constitution, prepared by departments and teachers in secondary schools, are reproduced. A statute in California now requires that every graduate of high schools shall have passed an examination on the principles and provisions of the United States Constitution. Practices in different schools vary from an elaborate departmental test to the usual test as a part of the course in American government; nine of sixteen schools replying to a questionnaire use departmental tests. Nearly all of the tests include the new-type test items.

Teachers interested in experimentation in orientation courses will be interested in James M. Wood's "Long Beach-Menlo-Stephens Co-operation," and Lowry S. Howard's "Discussion from Standpoint of Menlo," in the February issue of *Junior College Journal*. Orientation courses in the humanities and social studies, as developed in Stephens College, Columbia, Missouri, are described by President Wood, and the co-operative plan, arranged with Long Beach, California, Junior College and Menlo Junior College, Menlo Park, California, is described. Problems involved in experimentation are outlined, and certain data presented. President Howard outlines certain phases of the co-operative plan, and describes the orientation courses as adapted to the needs of students in Menlo Junior College.

W. C. McGinnis, in "Let Map-Making Precede Map Study," in the January 12th issue of *Journal of Education*, reports pupils' answers to the question: "If a man lies down with his head on the border-line between Vermont and Canada, with his legs pointing south, where will his feet be?" The discussion which follows is directed toward the title of the article.

## Book Reviews

EDITED BY PROFESSORS HARRY J. CARMAN AND J. BARTLET BREBNER, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

*A History of Women's Education in the United States.* By Thomas Woody. The Science Press, New York, 1929. Vol. I, xvi, 608 pp.; Vol. II, xi, 646 pp.

This admirable work, long in preparation, fills an important gap in American historiography. Until its appearance there was no complete or reliable history of women's education in the United States. In fact, until very recently scant attention was given to the subject, either in histories of education or in general histories of the country. Both volumes are splendid examples of the best canons of historical research. In assembling his material, Professor Woody has seemingly ransacked every available source—catalogues, manuscripts, minutes and records, laws, student

papers, diplomas, newspapers, periodical publications, journals and proceedings, diaries, pamphlets and books—and the fruits of his extended labors appear on almost every page, either in the form of direct quotations or footnote citations. The material is arranged topically, rather than chronologically, although the latter is not entirely overlooked. Consequently, the narrative is not broken.

Volume one begins with an account of women's position and education in other lands, and the changing concept of women's ability, position, and education in the United States. Professor Woody then shows that women's position socially, politically, and educationally in Colonial America was determined primarily by Old World ante-



cedents, and secondarily by the conditions of pioneer life. He then traces the rise of the female academies and seminaries, the appearance of the high school for girls, and the entrance of women into the teaching profession. The ten chapters in volume two are devoted to the changing economic status of women, vocational education for women, physical education, women's colleges, coeducation, higher professional education, emancipation of women, and the woman's club movement. The entire story is painted against the background of a changing America.

Both volumes contain valuable appendices. Volume one, for example, lists the textbooks mentioned in academy and seminary catalogues, and the studies offered in female seminaries and high schools. Volume two gives the textbooks mentioned in women's college catalogues since 1850, and more than a hundred pages of bibliographical material.

No one who has not read these volumes can fully realize the enormity of Professor Woody's undertaking or appreciate the significance of his contribution. He has, without question, placed every student of American civilization under deep obligation. Scholarship of this character deserves wide recognition.—C.

*John Marsh, Pioneer: The Story of a Trail-blazer on Six Frontiers.* By George D. Lyman. Charles Scribner's Sons, New York, 1930. xiii, 394 pp.

John Marsh had a colorful career. Born of old English stock in Salem, he was by training and early inclination a candidate for the ministry. He was graduated from Harvard in 1823, and accepted what he supposed would be a temporary appointment as a tutor to Colonel Josiah Snelling's children, who lived at the newly established post at the mouth of the Minnesota River. He organized a school for the children at the post and became the first American teacher in what is now Minnesota. He became a temporary subagent for the Sioux, and their ardent friend because of his alliance with the engaging Marguerite Decouteaux. He moved to Prairie du Chien, where he engaged in trade, became a justice of the peace and took part in the wars between the Sioux and the Sauk and Fox. Threatened with prosecution because he sold ammunition to the latter Indians during the Black Hawk War, he fled from Prairie du Chien to the Rockies, where he hunted and trapped for about two years. General merchandising at Independence, Missouri, proved to be a failure, and to escape creditors and arrest Marsh started down the Santa Fé Trail. Being captured by the Indians, he saved his life by becoming a healer. In 1836 he entered California and continued his practice of medicine. He received a large grant of land and became a wealthy cattleman, miner, and trader. He took a rather important part in the revolutionary movements in California. In 1856, Marsh was murdered by three Mexicans, who had a grievance against him and a desire to secure his money.

This bare summary does scant justice to one of the most dramatically written biographies which has appeared recently. The author has written a graphic story, which might well find its place in literature as well as in history. The description of John and Marguerite's baby ends with a sudden, dramatic surprise, which possesses a classical quality. For a similar turn in a dramatic account, but on a grander scale, the reader is referred to II Kings 6:24-30. Other instances of the author's dramatic sense may be cited. The starved, wandering son of Marsh walks into his own father's house. The educated Holmes, bitten by a mad wolf, wandered "into the tractless prairie and was never seen again." The blunt, horrible story of Marsh's death is recorded in simple but effective manner. From the standpoint of a story, written in a straightforward style, the book may well be the despair of imitators.

The author deserves unstinted praise for his prodigious labor in ferretting out the information necessary to the writing of such a biography. His bibliography covers many phases of the history of the West. The author's estimate of Marsh as a man and as an historical character of importance does not deserve such high praise. "I had found a hero neglected by the historians" (page ix). Waiving the point that historians are not hunting for heroes, it may

be said that Marsh was false to his mother and father, false to every standard which he had been taught, false to his new kinsmen, the Sioux, neglectful of his son, cruel, selfish, and grasping. Are these the traits of a hero? "The name of Marsh should be a household word" (page x). Why? Marsh had a varied and interesting career, and one who reads his life will inevitably learn much history of a thoroughly reliable quality. He was in many ways a typical frontiersman, but our household words must connote qualities which are not found in John Marsh. The book has merits and to spare, but the author does his hero a doubtful service when he attempts to evaluate his importance.

Sailing northward from Detroit, one does not go "down" (page 52) Lake Huron. As many meticulous writers have repeatedly pointed out, the Hudson's Bay Company is *sic* instead of Hudson Bay Company (page 52). Stephen Watts Kearney (page 109) should be Kearny. The book is, however, remarkably free from errors and illustrates what a careful worker, even though not a professionally trained historian, can accomplish. In style it, alas, surpasses what most professionals can do. The book is equipped with two excellent maps, many illustrations, a generous set of citations, a serviceable index, and an attractive format.

Teachers should put Dr. Lyman's book in high school libraries, and, instead of hunting for a book on pedagogy to find out how to motivate history reading, just ask Willie to read the story of John Marsh.

EDGAR B. WESLEY.

University of Minnesota.

*The Fur Trade in Canada.* By H. A. Innis. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1930. 444 pp.

The title of this fine book, and especially the almost inevitable confusion of it with the author's earlier *The Fur Trade of Canada* (Toronto, 1927), seem likely to obscure its very notable contributions to the general history of North America. While it is true that Professor Innis largely confines his work to the territory within the present boundaries of the Dominion of Canada, what he has discovered and the conclusions which he has drawn cannot be limited by political lines. In fact, the very political boundaries have to a large degree been determined by the economic activities whose history he has written and interpreted. While his book is primarily a work of elaborate scholarship, which one is tempted to say definitely records the share of fur in the economic history of Canada, it coordinates information on, or suggests interpretation of, a great variety of other more general themes. Some of these are: the peculiarities of the beaver and of the market for its fur, and the stimulus which its easy extinction gave to rapid American exploration; the distinctive effects of European trade goods on Indian culture, on migrations, alliances, and wars, particularly when the natives became middlemen in the fur trade (here the results of the author's collaboration with Professor T. F. McIlwraith, the anthropologist, are noteworthy); the relations of the canoe, the buffalo, the pre-Cambrian Shield, the timber line, the York boat, and (to a regrettably lesser degree) the horse, to North American frontier history; the important effects from the seventeenth century onwards of British industrial efficiency and of the Hudson River and Hudson Bay entries to North America; and the shifting relationships among Great Britain, the United States, and Canada as determined by the interdependence of their industrial, or staple-producing, economies.

The principal thesis of the book is a systematic and effectively unified account of the fur trade in Canada. It is based exclusively on primary sources, except in one instance (the period 1540-1600), where with appropriate caution a persuasive interpretation by analogy is advanced. Each phase of narrative and analytical description ends with a close-knit *corpus* of interpretative conclusion, which ranges from the economic history to political and social. Some of these generalizations would be dangerous detached from their context, but it is seldom that the reader will want to qualify them as they stand. Particularly for the period prior to 1821, Mr. Innis has many illuminating and

often novel things to say. He has given us our first good account of the Montreal merchants and the North West Company. His scholarship is literally exhaustive, and, had he taken the time and space for a bibliographical note of the materials in his footnotes, it would supplant anything yet compiled for the subject. He adds to the authority of his scholarship by having made himself personally familiar with the chief fur areas of Canada and with the contemporary conduct of the trade.

When there is so much to praise, when it is unlikely that this book will be supplanted, and when Mr. Innis seems likely to go on (along the lines of his concluding chapter) with timber and wood products, wheat, and minerals, in Canadian history, it is not out of the way to make more than usually specific criticisms of the methods which are secondary to his very sound main design. In many ways this last might be a model of technique. For instance, it would be very welcome to have Chittenden's *The American Fur Trade of the Far West* rewritten under historical discipline like Innis's, but one would like it done with a few modifications. In the first place, the absence of a bibliography is almost intolerable in a book where hundreds of sources are quoted (and often by *op. cit.*). A remedy would be amplification of the index, so that it would give first references to the authorities quoted. As it is, one gives up turning back pages or wastes endless time. In addition, some of the footnote references are insufficient. Again, while one can in the interest of scholarship welcome such close, bare writing and logic as fills this book, it is disturbing to find frequent undescriptive allusions to men, places, and events some time before their character is revealed. For instance, pages 152-169 are only completely intelligible to one who has previously studied the subject closely, or after one has read pages 169-192. There are traces of this inversion all through the book, and also of a too-great reliance on the reader's knowledge, as on page 203 in the reference to Cook's Inlet and in the assumption that one knows that the "failure" of Mackenzie's 1789 expedition

meant that he reached the Arctic instead of the Pacific. The "Keith system" is mentioned on page 324 without being related to its description. Finally, although immense quantities of evidence have been properly relegated to the footnotes, too much remains in the text for its lines of development to be clear. The table of contents is meagre, the chapters are long, and the paragraphs fairly frequently overflow two pages, often with several steps in the argument deeply imbedded in catalogues of evidence. If the index were a topical one, or even fuller under its nominal headings, one could get along, but, as it is, here is a book of imperative reference without convenience for using it as such. Perhaps the way out lies in tabular schemes for such evidences as ranges and fluctuations of prices and costs, assisted by shorter paragraphs, with telling introductory and concluding sentences, and, above all, by sketch maps. These things are important only because of the direct relation they bear towards making clear the very valuable things which Mr. Innis has to say.—B.

*American History.* By Thomas M. Marshall. Macmillan Co., New York, 1930. xiii, 718 pp.

*Our United States: A History of the Nation.* By James Albert Woodburn, Thomas Francis Moran, and Howard Copeland Hill. Longmans, Green & Co., New York, 1930. xxiv, 799 pp.

Both of these books reflect the present tendency among text-writers to become increasingly student-conscious. The authors display a groundwork in psychology, a consciousness of the demands of the grades, and a suitable vocabulary in their adoption of a style free from all intricacies, in their selection of an attractive format, and in the abundant use of maps, charts, and illustrations.

Professor Marshall has written a text for young Americans, presumably for those of upper elementary or junior high school age. He strives to "tell the story of our country so simply and so clearly that they will be able to understand the forces and processes that have produced this



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great nation"; and "that they may understand their country, not as an isolated unit, but as a world power." This the author professes to do by "making this book comprehensive in scope and interpretation" and by telling the truth, "all that is necessary to make every young American proud of the fact that he is an American," for telling the truth Professor Marshall understands to be telling the history of our country as one of magnificent accomplishments.

The book is divided into ten parts, the first part being devoted to "The Background of American History." The opening sentence is the key to Marshall's viewpoint that the history of any country is only a part of the history of the world. The first chapter gives, in twenty-eight pages, a story of the civilizations of the white man from the dawn of history down to the time of the discovery of America, describing governments existing in western Europe at that time and the development of the government of England to 1688, with the purpose of showing their effect upon colonial government. The second chapter describes the Indians of the West Indies, South and North America, including an interesting translation of Columbus' account of the Caribs. The next two parts deal with the colonial period of American history, through the Revolution. Chapter three, entitled, "Spanish and Portuguese Conquerors," includes the Italians, Columbus and Americus Vesputius, as well as Balboa, Ponce de Leon, Vasco da Gama, Magellan, Cortes, Pizarro, Narvaez, De Soto, Coronado, and Menendez. Then come three chapters—"The French Get Lands in America," "Dutch and Swedish Colonies," and "The Early English Colonies"—which show the author's familiarity with the new interpretation of colonial history. Parts Four, Five and Six open with "The Beginnings of American Government," and carry the account through to the Civil War. Part Seven deals with the Civil War and Reconstruction, while the last three parts, or approximately one-third of the text, is devoted to the period since the Civil War. In the last chapter, "Cultural and Outdoor America," art, music, and literature share a place with baseball and football, nor are Helen Wills, Bill Tilden, and Bobby Jones neglected. The reader may be led to wonder why, with the enumeration of American sculptors, painters, writers, and athletes, Professor Marshall completely omits, in his section on architecture, the names of any of our American architects. When he speaks of Bret Harte, Mark Twain, and Joaquin Miller, one feels the pride of the westerner expressed in the sympathetic telling of how the West inspired these men.

The publishers have added to the attractiveness of the volume by a neat, red leather cover. The book is copiously illustrated with six artistically colored plates and numerous new and stimulating black-and-white illustrations. The maps are, in accordance with the latest psychological precepts, each illustrative of an event or of a correlated group of events, seventy-three maps and charts in all. The book is equipped with many pedagogical devices of doubtful value, such as the list of dates and questions appearing at the end of each chapter, which the teacher finds is apt to encourage the lesson-learning attitude on the part of the pupils.

Certain statements we may question. "The Egyptians domesticated the horse," a statement appearing on page 3, takes no notice of the established fact that the horse and chariot did not appear in Egypt until after the Hyksos invasion. The statement that "the Phœnicians invented the alphabet," page 5, should have been avoided. Aside from this, however, is a more than adequate fulfillment of the author's aims, containing a wealth of information not ordinarily found in textbooks, stressing social, economic, and cultural history, and written in a diction adapted to the age of the pupils.

Although a review appeared in the January issue of *THE HISTORICAL OUTLOOK*, pointing out the excellencies and defects of the work of Woodburn, Moran, and Hill, "Our United States," much remains to be said of it. It, too, is a book for young Americans, intended for those of upper elementary and junior high school grades. But the aim of

these authors differs greatly from that of Marshall. Woodburn, Moran, and Hill endeavor to present an account of outstanding movements and developments in the history of the United States, following the topical rather than the chronological organization of history. They aim "to tell the story of significant movements in American history with a proper recognition of the time order within such movements, but without causing a break in the narrative by introducing topics and facts which, although contemporary and important, are without logical connection with the subject under discussion." The result is a refreshingly lucid and forceful presentation of American history from the discovery of America to the days of the Hoover administration. The previews at the beginning of each of the ten parts of the book are excellent for focusing the thoughtful attention of the pupils upon the movement to be studied. What the history teacher finds so difficult to cope with is the failure on the part of pupils to grasp the thought behind, what is to them, a jumble of facts; the failure to discern the continuity of history. This topical organization of history should be welcomed by every teacher as a means of dispelling from the minds of pupils the conception of history as an enumeration of events in chronological order. In addition, this book reflects the interest in civics shown by Woodburn and Moran in "The American Community" and "Active Citizenship," and so is excellently adapted to the fulfillment of the objectives of history teaching, which are to make of the pupil an intelligent, voting citizen, understanding of the problems which he will be called upon to solve in the present-day world.

MARION C. RHODES,

George Washington High School, New York City.

*The Knowlton Work-Book in American History.* By Daniel C. Knowlton. The Century Company, New York, 1930. vii, 323 pp.

Of the dozen or more work-books in American history which have been published in the last two or three years, that by Professor Knowlton is, in many respects, the most outstanding. This judgment is based on several reasons. In the first place, it is more than an assemblage of map studies and text questions. Designed for the senior high school, it seeks to have the student extract from the subject-matter that which is pertinent and helpful. Its successful use is not dependent upon a particular textbook. Indeed, with the aid of a good reference atlas or a few carefully selected wall maps, any standard text may be used.

A second feature is the great care with which the author—himself a very successful teacher—has divided the subject-matter into units or divisions. Of these, five cover the colonial and revolutionary period, six the years from the close of the Revolution to the end of the Civil War, and six the years from 1865 to the present. Each unit is designated by an appropriate title. Unit number twelve, for example, bears the title, "Reconstruction and the New Industrial Age." Each unit differs from the others in its demands upon the student. In fact, the material is so arranged that the teacher may plan the distribution of the time of the class in proportion to the relative importance of each theme or the desired emphasis. Each unit is prefaced by a brief introductory statement setting forth precisely the objective or aim of the study. This in turn is followed by a brief bird's-eye view of the unit in order that the student may pursue his study of the unit with greater precision and profit.

The units in turn form the basis for problems. These are numerous and varied and are designed to fit the needs of students of differing abilities. In obtaining data the student is encouraged not to depend solely on a single text. Moreover, in arranging his data, he is encouraged to make use of the graphic method, which Professor Knowlton himself has done so much to popularize in his volume, *Making History Graphic*. To this end the work-book contains several illustrations prepared by the author's own students. Each set of problems is followed by from twenty-five to



thirty suggestive questions drawn from such sources as the examinations set by the College Entrance Board and the state-wide tests given under the Regents of the State of New York. These may be used as review questions or as topics for essays and written work to supplement the problems.

Finally, the value of the book is enhanced by the inclusion of a series of informal new-type tests. Fortunately, Professor Knowlton is one of that small but growing number of educators who realizes that generalizations without foundation of fact are not only worthless, but usually misleading and sometimes harmful. New-type tests reveal at once to both student and teacher the extent to which a mastery of facts has been attained.

This latest contribution by Professor Knowlton to the teaching of American history in secondary schools is certain to be of great value to every teacher who desires a work-book that has been carefully prepared and tested by an experienced teacher.—C.

*The Dutch and Swedes on the Delaware, 1609-1664.* By Christopher Ward. Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania Press, 1930. 393 pp.

The author and publishers of this volume have produced a finely printed and interesting book. The print is large and clear, the paper excellent, the text readable and informing. It is time for a book of this sort upon New Sweden and its troubled career in the New World. Mr. Wyeth's frontispiece in colors of the "four-hundred-pound" Governor Johan Printz is good and gives the proper setting to the story.

The first section of Mr. Ward's book deals with the Dutch, the second with the Swedes, and the third and last with the Dutch again. The chapters, which are crisp and amusing, often of not more than a half-dozen pages, bear titles suggesting the method of a novelist. "Primeval Forests and Neolithic Men" is his name for an interesting and colorful discussion of the Delaware Valley and its Indian inhabitants, while others bear the curiosity invoking heads: "Two Swedes and Three Dutchmen," "Log Cabins and Wooden Spoons," and "Two Magic Words."

The author's intent, to fill in a gap, all too frequently in our minds when we begin the history of the Delaware with Penn instead of his Dutch and Swedish predecessors, has in general been well done. His further intent of creating a colonial figure, in the person of the picturesque and forceful Johan Printz, which shall rank in our minds with Winthrop and Stuyvesant, is an interesting effort. Certainly the most convincing and impressive figure in all the history of New Sweden seems to be this man who quitted his position as Lieutenant-Colonel of the West Gotha Cavalry to take up the arduous work of colony-building. The six chapters upon the various phases of the Governor's work are well written, amusing and frequently good history.

The rather playful style, with recurrent jibes at the principal characters of the drama, occasionally make us wonder if the sober purpose of the book is being consistently kept in mind. But the laughs and playful comment add to the book's readableness, and there are few, if any, errors in historical proportion. The social history of the early Swedes and Dutch, with their hard struggles, their plain and pious habits of life, their relations with the Indians, and their final surrender to their stronger neighbor is well told; and if Mr. Ward has been a little irreverent and sketchy in his fifty-five chapters, it is more than compensated for by the colorful and humorous manner in which he has used the old Delaware documents and produced a readable and valuable piece of social history.

COURTNEY R. HALL.

Adelphi College.

*The Puritan Mind.* By Herbert Wallace Schneider. Henry Holt and Company, New York, 1930. 301 pp.

It is rather a thankless task to define the "Puritan mind," for it means different things to different students. It is a way of life, we are commonly agreed, and to Professor Schneider the Puritan walked that way under an

enormous burden of a sense of sin and of dependence upon God.

The "Holy Commonwealth" of the first generation fought the "Wars of the Lord" against Indians and offensive critics like Roger Williams, Anne Hutchinson, and the Quakers. The second generation was less faithful to the idea of the "Holy Commonwealth," and only a rigid supervision by an ecclesiastical oligarchy infused the idea with a persistent strength. But the days of the "Holy Commonwealth" were numbered, in part because the leaders themselves were of lesser quality; "from the elect of the Kingdom of God," they had become "the élite of New England." Asceticism gave way to comparative ease, and heaven drifted to a remoter consciousness.

It was the aim of Jonathan Edwards to bring again to the forefront of consciousness a realization of the divinity. God's immediate presence was hailed in the "Great Awakening" that came to a slumbering sense of sin, but as the chill morning of awakening melted in the noon warmth of a growing benevolence, it was seen that Edwards was of a generation that had lived too long.

Many influences tended to weaken the Puritan's concern with sin. In the development of Samuel Johnson, first President of King's College (later Columbia University), we see the transformation that was coming over the mind of the New Englander. The worldliness of the Anglican Church, whose urbanity provided an escape from the provincialism of his colony, and the wealth of secular literature that came from Europe, opened new vistas to the heaven-bound horizon of the young Puritan. Beginning with John Wise, who had pointed out the "unholiness of the Commonwealth" and had emphasized self-reliance, through Jonathan Mayhew and Charles Chauncy's benevolent God, who originally had not planned the eternal damnation of sinners, we can trace the decline of the Puritan theology to its peaceful interment by Channing. Politics and commercial success in the eighteenth century led the confident Yankees to discard "the Puritan pretense of their entire dependence on

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God and transformed their theology into a declaration of independence."

Although their theology had exhausted its strength, the many virtues of the Puritans continued to guide the lives of the ungodly, including Franklin. Their spirit lives with us in the urge to "do good" and to live soberly, but their religious teachings are written in an obsolete language.

This is essentially a philosophical presentation and historians will probably find most fault with the book. Puritans, as Professor Murdock has shown, were as much preoccupied with the New Testament as with the Old; education, learning, and secular arts were not regarded as luxuries, despite our conventional impression to the contrary. It is unfair to make it seem that only for the Puritan was scientific knowledge "merely a matter of philosophic curiosity, not an inherently significant enterprise of the mind." For comparatively few people of any group in the seventeenth century was it anything else. At that, some New Englanders, like John Winthrop, Jr., thought of scientific knowledge as being "an inherently significant enterprise of the mind."

The "Great Awakening" was a much greater phenomenon than Professor Schneider suggests. The attempted recreation of primitive Puritanism was only one episode in a general reevaluation of almost all religious faiths. Even in a treatment of Puritanism, to write an interpretation of the "Great Awakening" almost wholly around Jonathan Edwards is rather risky. Though we may argue, as historians, about the presentation of some of the materials, we should be grateful indeed for this study by a philosopher because of the new light shed on familiar facts.

MICHAEL KRAUS.

College of the City of New York.

*Ancient Life in the American Southwest.* By Edgar L. Hewett. The Bobbs-Merrill Company, Indianapolis, 1930. 392 pp.

*Peruvian Textiles. Examples of the Pre-Incaic Period with a Chronology of Early Cultures.* By Philip Ainsworth Means. The Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York City, 1930. 22 pp. and xxiv plates.

*Peru from the Air.* By Lt. George R. Johnson and Raye R. Platt. American Geographical Society, New York City, 1930. xii, 159 pp.

Historical scholarship has turned its attention to one region after another in the United States, and has brought to light much of value and interest to the student of American history. In comparatively recent years attention has been directed by archaeologists, ethnologists, anthropologists, and Hispanic-American historians to the Southwest for the purpose of showing the part it has played in the early history of man. Many works have appeared in periodicals and in book form treating the subject, and such rapid strides have been made in the past few years in uncovering many interesting and surprising facts that most people have a confused conception of the true life and history of the early inhabitants of this region. To clarify the minds of such persons is the aim of the author of the first volume under review.

Dr. Hewett, who among other things is Director of the School of American Research of the Archaeological Institute of America, so synthesizes and correlates the tangled facts that he succeeds in presenting a panorama of the culture and civilization of both the early and modern Pueblo Indians of the Southwest. In doing this he has also given an introduction to the general history of the American race, and has initiated the lay reader into the realms of scientific archaeology as it is practiced today. Like other archaeologists, he has had to work largely with cultural remains, rather than with written records, for the Pueblo Indians "never consciously recorded anything about themselves." The telling of the story has been considerably assisted by 42 well-chosen illustrations and a map. Probably this work constitutes as popular a treatise as can be written, considering the nature of the subject, and one feels admirably repaid in reading it.

Mr. Joseph Breck, who writes the introduction to the second volume, states that the chief purpose of the brief treatise "is to make available for students of ornament reproductions of ancient Peruvian textiles selected from the collection of such material" in the Metropolitan Museum of Art. "These fabrics, with their vigorous patterns, based on motives ranging from the purely geometric to those derived from the world of nature, but more or less stylized, deserve much wider recognition than they have hitherto received, the more so that their aesthetic interest has seldom been surpassed in any category of fabrics" (page 7). Weaving, embroidery, knitting, and crocheting were widely practiced by the Pre-Incas. Their cloth was made from human hair, cotton, wool, and from a bast fiber of the maguey leaf, and it was colored by vegetable dyes in red, yellow, dark brown, blue, purple, green, white, and black. Many examples (except for colors) of this ancient art are found in the third part of this volume, and each illustration is described in some detail.

The second portion of the book is by Dr. Means, and is entitled a "Note on the Chronology of Early Peruvian Cultures." A map showing the "Pre-Incaic Cultural Regions in the Andean Area," and a chart detailing the chronology of the early Peruvian cultures, are of valuable assistance in giving one an appreciation of the civilization of these people. The chart in particular will bear close study. In this section also is a brief bibliography of books on Peruvian art and archaeology in the library of the Metropolitan Museum.

The third volume is composed largely of photographs taken from an airplane by Lt. Johnson, who was the Chief Photographer of the Peruvian Naval Air Service and Instructor in Aerial Photography at the Naval Air Base at Ancón. For this book the author has selected three groups of pictures: the first, showing the characteristic features of the coastal region of Peru; the second, showing something of the coast range, the high desert pampas, and the high snow-capped volcanic peaks on the western margin of the Andean plateau; and third, showing the Chanchamayo Valley and some of the Amazon tributaries.

The first part of the volume is devoted to a discussion of "The Peruvian Landscape," and includes numerous pertinent maps and illustrations, along with a treatment of such topics as Peruvian ports, irrigation, agriculture, topography, climate, geology, communication, etc. The remaining part of the volume (pages 41-159) is devoted chiefly to full-page illustrations with descriptions. The volume is unique, to say the least, and it might well be used as an example for the treatment of other countries of Hispanic-America. A work such as this will teach more geography and economic history in a shorter time than will most closely written volumes of description.

A. CURTIS WILGUS.

George Washington University.

*Statistics in Social Studies.* Edited by Stuart A. Rice. University of Pennsylvania Press, Philadelphia, 1930. 222 pp.

Included in this small volume are twelve separate papers, a number of which were presented at the annual meeting of the American Statistical Association and the American Sociological Society in December, 1929. The editor, Professor Rice, prepared not only the introductory chapter, "The Historico-Statistical Approach to Social Studies," but also considers statistical methods as applied to studies of social attitudes and public opinion. In the latter discussion his examples are drawn largely from the experiments of others to the modest exclusion of any mention of the interesting attempts made in his own book, "Quantitative Methods in Politics."

Dealing with statistical studies of marriage and the family, Professor Ogburn indicates the need for more accurate data and for data on certain aspects of the family which are not now available. He argues, giving illustrations, that the "most obvious statistical methods to be employed in dealing with such data are, of course, those of classification in adequately defined categories," and that, although

there is some difficulty of interpretation involved, the coefficient of partial (net) correlation may be used to advantage.

More than one-fourth of the volume is devoted to three discussions of prohibition statistics by John C. Gebhart, Herman Feldman, and Irving Fisher because as the foreword states "...it seemed difficult to find a competent statistician, familiar with research in the field, who was at the same time in a position of neutrality before the public with respect to it." The three discussions were included in the hope that the factor of partisanship would "cancel out." Professor Feldman claims to be unbiased and aptly says, "I have no emotions on the prohibition question, except when I read the research offerings of one side or the other, and then I am alternately a Wet or a Dry, depending upon the kind of statistical material presented," and he warns against "...poisoning the well of information at its source by having statistics gathered by a 'National Association for This,' or an 'American Association Against That.'"

Other chapters of the book deal with "Statistical Studies of Health and Medical Care," by Hugh Carter; "Statistical Studies of Dependency," by Ralph G. Hurlin; "Statistical Studies of Race Relations," by Donald Young; "Statistical Studies of Crime and the Administration of Justice," by C. E. Gehlke; "The Beginnings of Judicial Statistics," by L. C. Marshall; and "Statistical Studies of Personality and Personality Maladjustment," by Clifford Kirkpatrick.

FREDERICK E. CROXTON.

Columbia University.

*England Under Queen Anne: Blenheim.* By G. M. Trevelyan. New York, Longmans, Green & Company, 1930. xii, 477 pp., maps and charts.

Professor Trevelyan has taken up the "full-dress" history of England, where his ancestor, Macaulay, left off, and he has done so in a somewhat Macaulayan mood. He "cannot abandon the older ideal of History that was once popular in England, that the same book should make its appeal both to the general reader and to the historical student." This first volume of a projected series lives up to that ideal. It starts off with four chapters of social history that are as winning to any serious reader as the famous chapters on Shakespeare's England, which opened his *England Under the Stuarts*. He then recapitulates swiftly and surely the transitional years between 1688 and the accession of Anne, as a prelude to the exciting first two years of her reign. He carries his reader to the culminations of three dramas—the defeat of the High Church Tories, the defeat of the French army at Blenheim, and the capture and first defense of Gibraltar—and makes all three centre on the rise to heroic stature of his hero, John Churchill, Earl and Duke of Marlborough. He even succeeds in giving Queen Anne a positive rôle in these processes, and in doing so resists the temptation to paint her as merely a puppet in the skilful hands of Sarah Churchill.

The volume is based on scholarship of the highest order; indeed, the author has gone directly to the sources without relying as much on first-class monographs as has been his habit. The result is not startling novelty, but, as he says, "any new or startling theory would have been wrong." It is, however, a remarkable combination of the art and science of history, readable from beginning to end, and well-rounded without being allusive. Its later chapters are full of party politics, religious faction, and military history, and might, therefore, offend the "new" historian, but only if the latter forgot how thoroughly those things filled the lives of Englishmen of the day.

The narrative is alive with unhackneyed illustrative material, some of it quite novel, some forgotten since the eighteenth century. One finds Jeffreys returning the characters to London in a vain attempt to win support for James II after William had sailed, one is reminded that "No Fanatics" was almost as potent a mob-raiser as "No Popery," and one is quietly but unmistakably acquainted with the fact that British naval pre-eminence was painfully

gained by the conquest of native frailty. The apparatus of the book is excellent, its footnotes are an education in the sources, and index and maps are excellent and easily usable. There is room for few complaints, but it might be asked whether the reader needs to be reminded so often that the final victories are in sight, whether Eugene's share in the battle of Blenheim might not have had greater attention, and whether the correct impression is conveyed by calling the infamous Jonathan Wild a magistrate. Against these can be set such services to history as the careful revelation of the partnership of Marlborough and Heinsius, and of the genesis of the Blenheim campaign, not in simultaneous inspirations to Marlborough and Eugene, but in slow and persistent diplomatic pressure directed from Vienna.—B.

*A Modern History of the English People, 1880-1922.* By R. H. Gretton. Lincoln MacVeagh, The Dial Press, New York, 1930. 1185 pp.

This book is a reissue in one volume of Mr. Gretton's three volumes, which originally appeared in 1912, 1914, and 1929, covering the years 1880-1898, 1899-1910, and 1910-1922, respectively, prefaced by a few remarks on the difficulties of writing a history of contemporary events and tendencies. Most appropriately it begins with a fog and ends with a muddle. The fog, a natural phenomenon, was intimately connected with a bad harvest, depression, and lowered health; the muddle, an artificial creation, was the result of political, economic, international, and moral disorganization. Yet in the forty-two years between those two vales the British people reached the apex of material glory, imperially, economically, and politically. Nor was all the glory material, for in that same period Thomas Huxley, William Morris, Frank Brangwyn, F. H. Bradley, and Ellen Terry were contributing a more intangible legacy.

The string which Mr. Gretton has provided for our guidance through the labyrinth of these four decades is that of politics. Perhaps it had to be, but one may be

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permitted to regret that the book, instead of being what it is entitled, is fundamentally a political history of England during the years named. The regret becomes a little keener as one reads the panoramic opening chapters of the first two sections. Therein Mr. Gretton set his stage well, but afterwards he succumbs to the political show, and to Hansard. A hundred dreary politicians get their meed of space, but not one sentence is allotted to the logician, Bradley; to Sir Ernest Rutherford, the physicist; or to Mr. Gordon Craig. Scores of political incidents crowd out the very stuff of history. Of course, much must be omitted, but why not the piddling raffle of petty politics? If this is a cross-section of a civilization, let us have a taste of the many ingredients that went to make it up. Let us know, for example, what songs were being sung in the streets, what plays were popular—Pinero is not mentioned, what books were being read—apparently either nothing or the classics, and who besides politicians were the popular heroes. Sports receive no sensible attention, and this in a sporting country. It is not necessary to illustrate further, yet these shortcomings—in spite of the blurb on the cover to the effect that the everyday thoughts and conversations of people are here recorded—are precisely where the book falls short of Mark Sullivan's treatment of *Our Times*.

On the other hand, the book is full of excellencies. Its narrative is straightforward. Political intricacies are made comprehensible without being oversimplified. A vast number of interesting facts are worked into the story. Although the theme is politics, it is politics broadly construed. Social legislation and labor organization receive adequate attention. The point of view is not partisan. The story of the war is fairly told, although, if the author includes the German "Hymn of Hate," he should hardly omit Horatio Bottomley. In short, what the book does, it does generally well; the deficiencies are those of balance, and in that realm a universal norm is not easy to find.

CHARLES F. MULLETT.

University of Missouri.

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### PORTER SARGENT

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*Historical Selections.* By Hutton Webster. D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, 1929. xix, 973 pp.

Time was when the use of primary source readings enjoyed a considerable vogue in history teaching in America, when J. H. Robinson's *Readings in European History* formed an important adjunct to every student's library. Although the vogue has passed in large part, there are many teachers who still have faith in the importance of source readings and who, if they don't require their students to read them, incorporate outstanding passages in their lectures. To these instructors, especially if they are giving a broad survey course which runs from Ancient Egypt to the present day, Professor Webster's *Historical Selections* will prove to be a Godsend. The book comprises short passages (usually not more than two pages in length) concerning the social, economic, intellectual, and political history (part I) of the Ancient Egyptians, Babylonians and Assyrians, Phoenicians, Persians, Hebrews, and Arabs; (Part II) of Greece and Rome; (Part III) of Medieval Europe; (Part IV) of Modern Europe and America; and (Part V) of the Far East.

Gratitude and praise should be lavished on anyone who undertakes such a laborious and painstaking task, but especially on Professor Webster, whose work follows in the rich tradition of the *Translations and Reprints* of the University of Pennsylvania, and who is undoubtedly admirably trained for the production of such a work. His excellent judgment in selecting worth-while material is evident on nearly every page, and his extensive search for documents is reflected in the wide range of books covered in the footnotes. For the most part, social history has been stressed, and one will find excerpts touching such varied events as the building of the Great Pyramid, the commerce of Tyre, the manorial system, the Erfurt Socialist program, and rules for caste in India, but one will also find that much attention is given to intellectual history, such as passages from the Rosetta Stone, from Alcuin's letter to Charlemagne, and from Darwin. Each document is preceded by a short author's note explaining the history and significance of the matter in hand.

It is almost impossible to give an adequate descriptive review of the book, much less a critical one, in this short space. It should be noted, however, that certain important matters are practically excluded, while others of no greater importance are included. Thus, Louis XIV and the *Ancien régime* in France are not mentioned, while over ten pages are devoted to the contemporary struggle for constitutional government in England; Fascist Italy is passed by and only two pages are given to a Bolshevik document of (to the reviewer's mind) minor importance; and nothing is included regarding capitalism. Despite these omissions, the book is a good one, and should prove to be extraordinarily useful to both student and teacher.

SHEPARD B. CLOUGH.

Columbia University.

*A History of the Peninsular War. Vol. VII.* By Sir Charles Oman. Oxford University Press, Oxford, 1930. xi, 574 pp. 16 maps and plans.

The British take their Peninsular War very seriously. It was apparently the chief event in their army's annals between Agincourt and the Retreat from Mons, judging from the attention which it has received from their military historians. Sir William Napier, a participant, wrote several volumes of eloquent literature on the subject. Sir John Fortescue, in his recently completed *History of the British Army*, devotes practically half his space to those campaigns, which, judging from his proportion, quite overshadowed Naseby, Quebec, Yorktown, New Orleans, and Sebastopol, to say nothing of Blenheim. With the volume under consideration here, Sir Charles Oman has completed what will doubtless remain the definitive history of those years. The work was started in 1902, and there has been a lapse of eight years since the sixth volume appeared. In that interval, crowded with his university and parliamentary duties, he has found time to visit and study the terrain of this last act of Wellington's masterpiece.

The volume covers the period from August, 1813, to April, 1814. It starts with the taking of St. Sebastian,

after which Wellington chased Soult across the Bidaossa into France, fought the battles of the Nive, the Nivelle and Orthez, and had just taken Toulouse when the news of Napoleon's abdication arrived. Like the preceding volumes, this is chiefly a study of operations. Considerations of administration, personnel, and tactics will be found in the *Wellington's Army and Studies in the Napoleonic Wars*, which have been published separately by Sir Charles as by-products of his researches. Throughout this volume, he reiterates that Wellington's strategy cannot be judged from the purely military standpoint, for time and again he was affected by the political situation. By this period Wellington had abandoned his old "hit and run" strategy, and was limiting himself to hitting, while Soult did the running. Wellington, in the summer of 1813, feared to enter France too fast, lest Napoleon concentrate in full force upon him, but the news of the Austrian alliance and the battle of Leipzig settled that question. One of the most interesting parts of the volume is the final chapter on "The Place of the Peninsular War in History." "The combination of two things," Oman writes, "the inexhaustible endurance of Wellington and his army, and the perpetual worry and distraction caused to the French by the spasmodic efforts of the Spaniards, was fatal to the Emperor's scheme."

ROBERT G. ALBION.

Princeton University.

*The Collapse of the Austro-Hungarian Empire.* By Edmund von Glaise-Horstenau. Translated by Ian F. D. Morrow. E. P. Dutton & Co., New York, 1930. 347 pp.

In 1929 the *Amalthea-Verlag* in Vienna published a large and solid work from the pen of Colonel Edmund von Glaise-Horstenau, entitled, *Die Katastrophe*. The appearance of this book, dealing with the break-up of Austria-Hungary and the origins of the Succession States, further enhanced the reputation of the scholar, whose work as Director of the Austrian War Archives and as author of the excellent *Die Heimkehr Tirols* had received well-deserved recognition. Fortunately for those readers who lack a knowledge of German, *Die Katastrophe* now has been well translated into English and published under the title indicated at the head of this review.

The English version of the work is considerably shorter than the original, because of the omission of the first and last sections. The first section was a long, introductory sketch, giving the background of Habsburg power in Austria-Hungary, and the concluding section merely summarized the events of the hectic year 1919. It thus was just as well to abridge the translation, and the book now remains the outstanding narrative of moderate size on the developments of 1914 to 1918, which culminated in the collapse of the Dual Monarchy.

Oscar Jászi, in his *The Dissolution of the Habsburg Monarchy*, supplied a complete and accurate picture of the economic, social, and educational weaknesses which ate away at the core of Austria-Hungary's hegemony. Joseph Redlich, in his *Austrian War Government*, gave a penetrating analysis of the functioning of the *Ausgleich* government under the duress of a super-war. And now Colonel Horstenau has done a sketch, veracious and fascinating, of the actual process of disintegration as a result of the vicissitudes of that war. These three works form an indispensable trilogy for any student of contemporary and current European history.

Although written by an Austrian, who remained to the end a loyal subject of his emperor and who now considers the *Anschluss* of Austria to Germany as his fatherland's only avenue of salvation, the *Collapse* is remarkably free from partisanship or rancor, and it painstakingly assigns credit and blame where, on the basis of the available sources, credit and blame seem to be due. Few volumes contain such clear, precise, and penetrating character sketches of the men prominent in the events of 1914-1918 as does that of Director Horstenau. With fine detachment, too, the author considers the various angles to the unique pre-War relationship of Austria and Hungary, to the alliance between the two Central Empires, and to the

aspirations and activities of the numerous national groups under German and Magyar control. Particularly interesting is the exposition of the influence exerted in Austro-Hungarian policies by the Magyars, an influence hardly warranted by their numerical status.

Perhaps no greater compliment can be paid to the book than to state that the chief criticism to which it is open is the very minor one that the error of spelling Premier Wekerle's name with "ek" instead of simply "k" has been carried over from the original into the translation! Few books of a historical nature have given as much pleasure to the reviewer as this. And the inclusion of sixty-four excellent full-page illustrations only made it all the more interesting.

WALTER C. LANGSAM.

Columbia University.

*A Survey of the Ancient World.* By M. L. W. Laistner. D. C. Heath and Company, New York, 1929. xiii, 613 pp. 40 illus., 15 maps.

This is a textbook of Ancient History of college grade, written by a competent scholar, who is thoroughly familiar with the field. It covers adequately the period of the usual undergraduate course. After a brief survey of Man in the Stone Age, the author treats of Oriental History, with due attention to periods and influences. The major portion of the book is properly devoted to the classical period and ends with the reign of Constantine.

There are excellent chapters summarizing economic and cultural developments in the successive periods, though the chief emphasis is political. In fact, there is an overloading of details which tend to make the book a little heavy and dry for the average undergraduate. The treatment is, however, sufficiently clear for fairly mature students. Excellent maps and well-chosen illustrations add to the attractiveness of the text.

W. E. CALDWELL.

University of North Carolina.

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## Book Notes

A brief chapter to indicate the debt of Greece to the older Oriental cultures precedes a most attractive treatment of the cultural history of the Greeks and the Romans in *the Story of Greece and Rome: Their Growth and Their Legacy to Our Western World*, by J. C. Robertson, M.A., and H. G. Robertson, Ph.D. (J. M. Dent and Sons, Ltd., London and Toronto. xv, 352 pp.). Political history is reduced to the barest skeleton, but the personalities of the leaders of ancient civilization emerge in vivid colors. Economic conditions, art and architecture, literature, religion and philosophy all receive due space. A very well-selected list of books for additional reading is appended. The book is to be highly recommended for classroom use or for general reading. It is too bad that the publishers did not print it in a larger size of type which would be easier on the eye.

*An Analytical Survey of Modern European History. Part I, 1500-1815* (The Macmillan Company, New York, 1930. 44 pp.), by Paul V. B. Jones, gives a comprehensive outline which should prove of great value to teachers, first, because of its logical organization, and, secondly, because of the precise references given for each subject.

Part I is divided into fourteen topic installments, consisting of thirty-one lectures. The principal assignments are based on Hayes, *Political and Social History of Modern Europe*, Volume I. Source material contained in Robinson's *Readings*, Volume II, is indicated, and optional readings are suggested with each assignment. The last seven pages are devoted to bibliography. In the preface, Professor Jones presents a summary view of his organization and method in teaching the course.

*Italy Yesterday and Today* (A. Marinoni, Macmillan Co., New York, 1931. x + 315 pp.) provides us with a guide-book of modern Italy in the light of intimate side-lights on the great men and women of Italy's past. It is a running commentary on places and things which the author feels should be of interest to the average American tourist of the armchair variety. There is a short introduction dealing with the political history of Italy, which is particularly startling for the statement, "The chief function of the so-called liberal State was egregiously political, that of the Fascist State is all embracing and is much less political than it is ethical, educational, social."—H. B. M.

Despite the protestations of the author that *A Short History of the Expansion of the British Empire, 1500-1930* (William Harrison Woodward, Cambridge University Press, 1931. viii + 368 pp.), is not a manual nor a gazetteer, the book remains definitely within that category. This edition, the sixth, is but old material brought up to date by the addition of a few paragraphs at vital points. The book is particularly valuable for high school use and for the tables contained in it.—H. B. M.

A new disciple of James Anthony Froude and Thomas Carlyle has arisen in the person of Miss Rowena Keyes, who appears to believe that history is largely a matter of the lives of great men. In *Lives of Today and Yesterday* (D. Appleton and Co., New York, 1931. xv + 316 pp.) Miss Keyes has sought to stimulate the interest of secondary school students in biography by a selection of comparative readings, the diversified nature of which is designed to meet all tastes. Unfortunately, this diversity is deceptive, and we find a monotonous procession of characters who have played the gilded part in the drama of history. The intrinsic value of the work would have been enhanced had the author included persons of lesser degree, whose humble part contributed none the less to the progress of the world. Many of the characters are idealized, and particularly annoying is the selection of Alcibiades, who is presented to the public as a charming young man who



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was the victim of circumstances. Whatever interest the book may develop in the student, there is grave danger that the formal study guide and the questions which form the appendix will serve to extinguish it.—H. B. M.

*Stories of the Ancient Peoples, A Primary History* (Houghton Mifflin Company, Boston, 1929. viii, 169 pp.), by Henry Smith Chapman, surveys the more famous stories of Greek mythology and gives a short chapter on the Norse stories and then a series of chapters, which begin with primitive man and carry the story by leaps and bounds to 476 A. D. Each chapter is followed by questions, projects, and readings. The book is attractive and readable, though the language and ideas are both a little difficult for young children.

It is hard to see the logic of putting the stories of the Iliad and the Odyssey before the story of the Stone Age. For that matter, the mythological material might better have been omitted in a book of this sort, and the space devoted to the history which is its main purpose and which has suffered from too much condensation. The poorly chosen bibliography indicates carelessness in such titles as "Breasted, Ancient History," and "Frank Tenny (sic), History of Rome."

In his volume, *A History of Greece* (Thomas Y. Crowell Company, New York, 1929. xii, 480 pp. 33 illustrations, 23 maps), Mr. Cyril E. Robinson has presented the story of the ancient Greeks with much spirit and in a most readable style. His book is well illustrated and attractive. There is one chief criticism of it from the point of view of the teacher of Greek history. There are fifteen pages devoted to the Prehistoric Age, nineteen pages to the whole Hellenistic period, and sixty-four pages (two chapters) to the Peloponnesian War. It seems regrettable that much of the latter space was not distributed over the earlier and particularly the later period. Apart from this overload of the details of the war, the classical period is done in very good fashion and the book is attractive to students.

## Books on History and Government Published in the United States from January 31, to February 28, 1931

LISTED BY CHARLES A. COULOMB, PH.D.

### AMERICAN HISTORY

- Adamic Louis. *Dynamite; the story of class violence in America*. N. Y.: Viking Press. 462 pp. (4 p. bibl.). \$3.50.
- Bari, Valeska, compiler. *The course of empire; California in the days of the Gold Rush of '49*. N. Y.: Coward-McCann. 368 pp. \$4.00.
- Bell, N. S., compiler. *Pathways of the Puritans*. Framingham, Mass.: Old America Co. 432 pp.
- Browne, George W. *Real legends of New England*. Chicago: A. Whitman. 264 pp. \$1.50.
- Bruce, Kathleen. *Virginia iron manufacture in the slave era*. N. Y.: Century Co. 495 pp. (21 p. bibl.). \$3.50.
- Carson, William J., editor. *The coming of industry to the South*. Phila.: Am. Acad. of Polit. & Soc. Science. 300 pp. \$2.00.
- Coupland, Reginald. *The American Revolution and the British Empire*. N. Y.: Longmans Green. 338 pp. \$4.50.
- Cox, John, Jr. *Quakerism in the City of New York, 1657-1930*. N. Y.: Author, 7 E. 42d St. 144 pp. \$2.50.
- Davidson, Victor. *History of Wilkinson Co. [Georgia]*. Macon, Ga.: J. W. Burke Co. 645 pp. \$5.00.
- Dutcher, Dean. *The negro in modern industrial society*. Lancaster, Pa.: Science Press. 151 pp. \$2.00.
- Folwell, William W. *A history of Minnesota; Vol. 4*. St. Paul, Minn.: Hist. Society. 588 pp. \$5.00.
- Hall, Mrs. Basil. *The aristocratic journey; letters...written during a fourteen months' sojourn in America, 1827-1828*. N. Y.: Putnam. 315 pp. \$5.00.

- Horn, Henry H. *An English colony in Iowa*. Boston: Christopher Pub. House. 91 pp. \$1.50.
- Jordan, Donaldson, and Pratt, E. J. *Europe and the American Civil War*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 311 pp. (20 p. bibl.). \$4.00.
- Kelty, Mary G. *The growth of the American people and nation*. Boston: Ginn & Co. 638 pp. \$1.32.
- Payne, George H. *England, her treatment of America*. N. Y.: Sears. 343 pp. (18 p. bibl.). \$3.50.
- Robertson, Archibald. *Archibald Robertson; his diaries and sketches in America, 1762-1780*. N. Y.: N. Y. Pub. Library. \$10.00.
- Shields, Joseph D. *Natchez; its early history*. Louisville, Ky.: J. P. Morton & Co., 422 W. Main St. 274 pp.
- Spero, S. D., and Harris, A. L. *The black worker*. N. Y.: Columbia Univ. Press. 519 pp. (12 p. bibl.). \$4.50.
- Weddell, Alexander W., editor. *Memorial volume of Virginia historical portraiture, 1585-1830*. Richmond, Va.: Wm. Byrd Press. 1046 pp. \$100.00.
- West, Ruth, and Wallace, W. L. *American history workbook*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 294 pp.
- Wilson, H. E., and Wilson, F. H. *Work-book in United States history, pts. 1 & 2*. N. Y.: Am. Book Co. 233, 254 pp. 40 cents, 36 cents.

### ANCIENT HISTORY

- Cook, Stanley A., and others, editors. *The Cambridge Ancient History, Vol. 8, Rome and the Mediterranean, 218-133 B. C.* N. Y.: Macmillan. 865 pp. \$9.50.
- Gwatkin, William E., Jr. *Cappadocia, as a Roman procuratorial province*. Columbia, Mo.: Univ. of Mo. 66 pp. (4 p. bibl.). \$1.25.

### ENGLISH HISTORY

- Ashdown, Margaret. *English and Norse documents relating to the reign of Ethelred the Unready*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 324 pp. \$5.50.
- Bede, The Venerable. *Baedae opera historica, 2 vols.* [Loeb Classical Library]. N. Y.: Putnam. 540, 517 pp. \$2.50 each.
- English scene, The; the spirit of England in the monuments of her social life and industrial history. N. Y.: Macmillan. 133 pp. \$2.50.
- Shann, Edward O. G. *An economic history of Australia*. N. Y.: Macmillan. 470 pp. \$6.00.
- Younghusband, Sir Francis E. *Dawn in India*. N. Y.: Stokes. 347 pp. \$3.50.

### EUROPEAN HISTORY

- Battaglia, Otto Forst de, editor. *Dictatorship on trial*. N. Y.: Harcourt. 389 pp. \$3.75.
- Collison-Morley, Lacy. *Italy after the Renaissance*. N. Y.: Holt. 339 pp. \$5.00.
- Farbman, Michael. *Piatiletka; Russia's Five-Year Plan*. N. Y.: New Republic. 232 pp. \$1.00.
- Jones, Paul V. B. *Analytical survey of modern European history, 1<sup>st</sup> 2, 1815-1930*. N. Y.: MacMillan. 51 pp. (6 p. bibl.). 50 cents.
- Lawler, Thomas B. *The gateway to American history*. Boston: Ginn & Co. 406 pp. 96 cents.
- MacLaughlin, Martin. *Newest Europe*. N. Y.: Longmans Green. 222 pp. \$2.40.
- Oudard, Georges. *Four cents an acre; the story of Louisiana under the French*. N. Y.: Brewer & Warren. 316 pp. (9 p. bibl.). \$3.50.
- Trevelyan, Mary C. *William the Third and the defense of Holland, 1672-4*. N. Y.: Longmans Green. 371 pp. \$7.50.
- Whitham, J. M. *A biographical history of the French Revolution*. N. Y.: Viking Press. 505 pp. \$5.00.

### THE WORLD WAR AND RECONSTRUCTION

- Graham, Frank D. *Exchange, prices, and production in hyperinflation; Germany, 1920-1923*. Princeton, N. J.: Princeton Univ. Press. 381 pp. (28 p. bibl.). \$3.50.
- Judy, Capt. W. L. *A soldier's diary, a day-to-day record in the World War*. Chicago: Judy Pub. Co. 216 pp. \$2.00.

- Muir, Ramsay. Political consequences of the Great War. N. Y.: Holt. 251 pp. \$1.25.  
 Plivier, Theodor. The Kaiser's coolies. [Life on the German High Seas Fleet]. N. Y.: Knopf. 308 pp. \$2.50.

## MISCELLANEOUS

- Gann, T. W. F., and Thompson, J. E. The history of the Maya, from the earliest times to the present time. N. Y.: Scribner. 274 pp. (2 p. bibl.). \$2.50.  
 Means, Philip A. Ancient civilizations of the Andes. N. Y.: Scribner. 604 pp. (29 p. bibl.). \$7.50.  
 Stuart, Graham H. The international city of Tangier. Stanford Univ., Calif.: Stanford Univ. Press. 336 pp. (11 p. bibl.). \$4.00.

## BIOGRAPHY

- Megaro, Gaudence. Vittorio Alfieri; forerunner of Italian nationalism. N. Y.: Columbia Univ. Press. 175 pp. (9 p. bibl.). \$3.00.  
 Bright, John. The Diaries of John Bright. N. Y.: Morrow. 603 pp. \$7.50.  
 Pollock, Queena. Peggy Eaton, democracy's mistress. N. Y.: Minton Balch. 306 pp. \$3.50.  
 Gage, General Thomas. The correspondence of Gen. Thomas Gage with the Secretaries of State, 1763-1775, Vol. I. New Haven: Yale Univ. Press. 467 pp. \$5.00.  
 Pastor, Ludwig, freiherr von. The history of the Popes; vols. 19 and 20; Gregory XIII, 1572-1585. St. Louis: B. Herder. 693 pp. each. \$5.00 each.  
 Bayne, Julia T. Tad Lincoln's Father. Boston: Little, Brown. 218 pp. \$2.00.  
 Macartney, Clarence E. N. Lincoln and his Cabinet. N. Y.: Scribner. 384 pp. (3 p. bibl.). \$3.50.  
 Masters, Edgar L. Lincoln the man. N. Y.: Dodd-Mead. 520 pp. \$5.00.  
 Seitz, Don C. Lincoln, the politician. N. Y.: Coward, McCann. 501 pp. \$4.00.  
 Waxman, Percy. The black Napoleon, the story of Toussaint Louverture. N. Y.: Harcourt. 298 pp. (3 p. bibl.). \$3.50.  
 Boehmer, H. Luther. N. Y.: Dial Press. 368 pp. \$5.00.  
 Brailsford, Mabel R. The making of William Penn. N. Y.: Longmans Green. 391 pp. (2 p. bibl.). \$5.00.  
 Nichols, R., and Poole, C. N. Peter Powers, pioneer; [first settler in Hollis, New Hampshire]. W. Roxbury, Mass.: Rudge Nichols, 26 Whittemore St. 139 pp. (2 p. bibl.). \$2.00.  
 Godwin, George S. Vancouver; a life, 1757-1798. N. Y.: Appleton. 319 pp. \$4.00.  
 Wells, Wells. Wilson, the unknown. N. Y.: Scribner. 365 pp. \$2.50.

## GOVERNMENT AND POLITICS

- Hepner, W. R., and Hepner, F. K. Laboratory textbooks in civics for the junior high school grades. Boston: Houghton Mifflin. 156 pp. 76 cents.  
 Hughes, R. O. Workbook in civics. Boston: Allyn & Bacon. 298 pp.  
 Myers, Denys P. Handbook of the League of Nations since 1920. Boston: World Peace Foundation. 341 pp. \$2.50.  
 Rugg, Harold O. A history of American government and culture; America's march toward democracy. Boston: Ginn & Co. 652 pp. \$1.96.  
 Simpson, Herbert D. Tax racket and tax reform in Chicago. Chicago: Inst. for Econ. Research, Northwestern Univ. 306 pp. (15 p. bibl.). \$2.50.  
 Stowell, Ellery C. International Law. N. Y.: Holt. 855 pp. (9 p. bibl.). \$4.75.

## Historical Articles in Current Periodicals

COMPILED BY LEO F. STOCK, PH.D.

## GENERAL AND MISCELLANEOUS

- Recent Studies in the Thirty Years' War. E. A. Beller (*Journal of Modern History*, March).  
 Ministerial Instability in France. Lindsay Rogers (*Political Science Quarterly*, March).

- Austro-Hungarian Diplomatic Documents, 1908-1914. O. H. Wedel (*Journal of Modern History*, March).  
 Reminiscences of Crown Prince Rudolph. Henry Marc-zali (*Contemporary Review*, February).  
 European Diplomacy and the Rebellion of 1863-1864. Tytus Filipowicz (*Poland*, March).  
 The Sacred Congregation de Propaganda Fide: Its Foundation and Historical Antecedents. J. A. Griffin (*Records of the American Catholic Society*, December).  
 Mussolini's Battle of Wheat. Gaetano Salvemini (*Political Science Quarterly*, March).  
 Russia, the Industrial Laboratory. S. A. Lewisohn (*Political Science Quarterly*, March).  
 The Japanese Mandate in the South Pacific. Keichi Yamasaki (*Pacific Affairs*, February).  
 The Proposed Mediterranean League of 1878. D. E. Lee (*Journal of Modern History*, March).  
 Japan's Protest against the Annexation of Hawaii. T. A. Bailey (*Journal of Modern History*, March).  
 Chilean Politics, 1920-1928. C. H. Haring (*Hispanic-American Historical Review*, February).  
 The Second International American Conference at Mexico City (1901). A. C. Wilgus (*Hispanic-American Historical Review*, February).

## BRITISH EMPIRE

- England and the Spanish-American Trade. Curtis Nettels (*Journal of Modern History*, March).  
 England's Controversy over the Secret Ballot. J. H. Park (*Political Science Quarterly*, March).  
 Persian Princes in England a Century Ago. A. J. Butler (*Fortnightly*, February).  
 Recollections of a Government Whip. Sir G. L. Gower (*Cornhill Magazine*, January).  
 Through the Sepoy Mutiny and the Siege of Delhi (continued). Harriet C. Tytler (*Chamber's Journal*, February).  
 The Scottish Guard of the Kings of France. Baron de Brix (*Scots Magazine*, February).  
 Macdonald: Napoleon's Scottish Marshal. Harry Bell (*Chamber's Journal*, February).  
 Australian Federalism at the Crossroads. K. O. Warner (*Pacific Affairs*, February).  
 Absentee Landlordism in the British Caribbean, 1750-1833. L. J. Ragatz (*Agricultural History*, January).

## GREAT WAR AND ITS PROBLEMS

- The Inner Story of the Aisne, 1918. Capt. Liddell Hart (*Fortnightly*, February).  
 Prince Bülow and the Kaiser. G. P. Gooch (*Contemporary Review*, February).  
 The Franco-British Plot to Dismember Russia. L. I. Strakhoosky (*Current History*, March).  
 The Latin-American Problem in the League of Nations. C. W. Jenks (*Contemporary Review*, February).

## UNITED STATES AND DEPENDENCIES

- The Writing of American History. A. B. Hart (*Current History*, March).  
 Edward Channing: America's Historian. C. R. Fish (*Current History*, March).  
 Our President's Increasing Power. W. B. Munro (*Current History*, March).  
 The Reverend Thomas Morritt and the Free School in Charles Town (1722). E. L. Pennington (*South Carolina Historical and Genealogical Magazine*, January).  
 An Account of the Presbyterian Mission to the Cherokees, 1757-1759. S. C. Williams (*Tennessee Historical Magazine*, January).  
 Gerrit Smith Miller, a Pioneer in the Dairy and Cattle Industry. W. F. Galpin (*Agricultural History*, January).  
 The Earthquake of 1811 and Its Influence on Evangelistic Methods in the Churches of the Old South. W. B. Posey (*Tennessee Historical Magazine*, January).  
 Andrew Jackson and His Ward, Andrew Jackson Hutchings. J. H. DeWitt (*Tennessee Historical Magazine*, January). Letters from Jackson's Correspondence.  
 The Lost Irish Tribes in the South. I. S. Cobb (*Tennessee Historical Magazine*, January).



